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## GESENIUS'S

## HEBREW* GRAMMAR <br> WITH <br> READING B00K.

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## GESENLUS'

## HEBREW GRAMMAR,

## FOURTEENTH EDITION

AS REVISED BY DR. E. RÖDIGER.
translated by

WITH THE MODIFICATIONS OF THE EDITIONS SUBSEQUENT TO THE ELEVENTH BY DR. DAVIES, OF STEPNEY COLLEGE. LONDON. )

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,
A COURSE OF EXERCISES IN HEBREW GRAMMAR,

AND A
HEBREW CHRESTOMATHY, prepared by the translator.

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## TRANSLATOR'S PREF'ACE.

The fourteenth edition of the Hebrew Grammar of Gesenins is now offered to the public by the translator of the eleventh edition, by whom this work was first made accessible to students in the English language. The conviction expressed in his preface to that edition, that its publication in this country would subserve the interests of Hebrew literature has been fully sustained by the result. After a full trial of the merrs of this work, both in America and in England,* its republication is now demanded in its latest and most improved form. The writer believes it to be no more than justice to him, that he should be allowed to answer this demand ; and to enjoy any advantages resulting from the increasing popularity of a work, the merits of which have become known through his labours.

Of the general character of this grammar it is now unnecessary to speak. It passed through thirteen editions with continual improvements from the author's own hand. The fourteenth edition iwas, prepared, after the death of Gesenius, by his friend and former pupil Prof. Rödiger, one of the most accurate oriental scholars of the age, who for some time lectured on Hebrew Grammar in the University at Halle, with the work of Gesenius for his text-book. Traces of his accurate scholarship are found, in the form of corrections and additions, in every part of the work; and some portions have been rewritten, but on the same general philological principles and in the same spirit as the preceding editions. In the sections on the important subject of the Hebrew tenses he has substituted, injudiciously I think, the terms Perfect and Imperfect for Praeterite and

[^0]Future, and has given in § 123 a corresponding modification to the expression of the original import of these tenses. So subtile and refined a distinction cannot have been the original conception of these forms. The obvious and strongly marked division of time into Past and Future was doubtless the primary one ; and from this simple and clearly ori ginal import of the two forms, Gesenius has, with admirable skill, derived their various secondary and related uses, and shown how nat. urally the latter spring from the former. Rödiger, by adapting his nomenclature to the secondary instead of the primary signification and uses of a tense, has given an unphilosophical view of the relation of the primary and secondary to each other, and rendered that relation obscure to the inquirer.* Whether these strictures are deemed just or not, al. will doubtless admit the propriety of retaining in the translation the names of the tenses in common use; those adopted by Rodiger being unknown to the lexicons and other works which the student must use in connexion with the grammar. This remark applies also to the terms conversive and consecutive. Those who may prefer to follow Rödiger have only to substitute Perfect and Imperfect for Praeterite and Future. and consecutive for conversive.

The Exercises, which follow the translation, are designed to facilitate the study of the grammar. They were prepared after several years observation, as a teacher, of the difficulties which embarrass the student ${ }^{1}$ in his first attempt to learn an oriental language. They have been used with great advantage by a teacher under my direction during the last seven years, and by teachers in other Institutions.-The principles of reading and orthography, of inflexion, \&c., are necessarily scattered through numerous sections and subdivisions in the grammar. A judicious summary of these principles, grouping together those points which mutually illustrate each other, will save much of the student's time and labour, and give him a clearer impression of the whole than he can obtain by his own unassisted study of the grammar. A comparison of Sect. II. and Sect. VII. of the Exercises with the $\S \oint$ of the grammar there referred to, will show the utility of such a mode of treating the subject. Occasionally, several statements in the grammar are con

* I have added therefore, at the end of the volume, Gesenins' general statemerr of the import of the two tense-forms, on which he bases his treatment of the subject in the succeeding $\oint \oint$, as given also in the fourteenth edition. Gesenius' view of the original form of the Heb. article is given and commented on by Rödiger, ( $\S 35$, Rem. 1,) whose reasons for differing from him are not satisfactory to me. He dees not attempt to account for its punctuation, although it is, aecording to his own view, an integral part of the form.
densed into one more comprehensive expression, in a form more convenient for the student's use. The principles of inflexion, imperfectly given in $\$ 27,3$ (as in all Hebrew grammars) are fully stated and illustra:ed in Sect. V. With a knowledge of these principles, the student will find no difficulty in the otherwise perplexing subject of the inflexion of nouns and verbs.

It s recommended to those who may use this work in their instruc tions, hat only the $\oint \S$ of the grammar placed in brackets at the head of each Section of the Exercises should be studied, or even read, before the subject of that Section is made perfectly familiar. By this course, each portion of the grammar is indelibly fixed in the memory as the student advarces. The promiscuous examples furnish at the same time a useful (xercise, and a test of the student's progress. The exercises in anal/sis (Sect. IX.) should be thoroughly understood, and impressed on the memory, before the study of the first lessons in translating is commetced. Such characteristic peculiarities of the language are too imporant to be left for occasional examination, where they may chance to ocur in reading; and a knowledge of them is presupposed in the sub. sequent notes.

The notes to the Chrestomathy have been prepared on the plan wich every teacher of experience will appreciate, of reprinting nothing which is contained in the grammar;-and what is equally important, of epeating nothing which has once been stated and learned. On a diferent plan, the same amount of information might easily have been exended over a hundred pages, and with no other effect than to retard the real proficiency of the learner.-The Exercises and Chrestomathy have been carefully revised, and the numerous references, in which it is believed not an error remains, have been adapted to this edition of the grammar.

It is due to myself to state the circumstances which have led to my comexion with the publication of this edition.

Soon after the appearance of the fourteenth edition, a translation of it was published in England, and was announced for republication in this country. Another translation had already been announced as nearly ready for the press, by a distinguished scholar of this country, without any consultation with me, or any intimation that an improved edition of the work, which I had first brought to the notice of the American public, would be acceptable from me. As nothing was to be hoped for in a competition with two rival publications of the same work, I could only quietly suffer myself to be superseded.

In the mean time a copy of the English publication was sent me, and

I observed in the translator's preface an acknowledgment of "very val. uable aid received from Prof. Conant's excellent translation of the eleventh edition." On examining the book to see what aid I had rendered in preparing an edition which was about to supersede my own, I found that wherever in the original the two editions coincide, as in by far the greater part of the work, my translation had been reprinted woid for word (with here and there a change too trivial to be noticed except for its infelicity), including corrections and additions silently made from Gesenius' other works, and notes bearing the mark of the transator. Had the English editor professedly republished my translation, acding the improvements of the subsequent editions and prefixing the title-page under which it now appears, he would have done justice to himself and to me. The American publishers had the whole work already in type; but having satisfied themselves of the correctness of the above statement by a comparison of the two editions, they proposed an honourable djustment with the original publishers, and by a liberal compensaton secured their right to the work.

The English editor has, with great diligence and fidelity, incorprated every modification of the editions subsequent to the eleventh, evea to the most minute suggestion. Some defects of taste will be observe in the portions which he has translated. One page (the 92d) I hav found it necessary to retranslate, and have corrected the phraseology ir some others, where it could conveniently be done in the plates. After a very careful revision of the whole, I have noted at the end of the volume every instance in which the meaning of the original appears to be in any degree obscured. Most of the notes which now bear the signature Tr., and passages inserted in brackets, add nothing to the value of the book; but will do no injury, as they are carefully distinguished from the original matter. The note $\ddagger$ to $\S 112$ should have been expunged; but the omission there noticed will not be mistaken for an oversight of preceding grammarians.

The Chrestomathy and notes prepared by Dr. Davies, being in type when the above mentioned arrangement was made, are retained by desire of the publishers, and will increase the amount of reading matter in Hebrew. His notes I have not examined, farther than to ascertain that his method is not such as, when a teacher of Hebrew, I found best adapted to intelligent students. Some, however, may find them useful, especially those who study the language without a teacher.

The superintendence of this edition was confided to Mr. William W. Turner, Hebrew Instructor in Union Theological Seminary, whose accuracy, and experience in the publication of similar works, are a
sufficient guaranty for the proper execution of the trust. It is but just to him to add, that he was responsible only for a correct reprint of the English copy. In beauty and correctness of typographical execution. this work surpasses any Hebrew grammar that has been published in this country, and is highly creditable to the press from which it is issuerl.

I would here express my acknowledgments to the publishers for their honourable treatment of my claims; and the hope that this, with the facilities here furnished for the elementary study of the Hebrew language, may commend their edition of the work to the favourable notice of teachers.

> T. J. CONANT.

$$
\left.\begin{array}{c}
\text { Madison University, } \\
\text { Hamilton, N. Y. }
\end{array}\right\}
$$

October, 1846


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## INTRODUCTION.

## Sect. 1. <br> OF THE SHEMITISH LANGUAGES IN GENERAL.

1. The Hebrew tongue is only one of the members of a large family of languages in Western Asia, which was native in Palestine, Phœnicia, Syria, Mesopotamia, Babylonia, and Arabia, i. e. in the countries from the Mediterranean to the Tigris, and from the Armenian mountains to the south coast of Arabia. But this family spread itself in early antiquity from Arabia over Æthiopia, and by means of Phœnician colonies, over many islands and shores of the Mediterrancan, but especially over the whole Carthaginian coast.*

There is no name, sanctioned by long usage, for the nations and languages united in this family. The name Shemites, Shemitish languages (suggested by Gen. x. 21, \&c., where most of the nations using these tongues are derived from Shem) is, however, generally received at present, and may well be retained in the absence of a better. $\dagger$
2. This Shemitish class of languages consists of three principal divisions: a) The Arabic, which has its seat in the south of the territory of the Shemites. To this belongs the AEthiopic as a branch of the southern Arabic (Himyaritic). b) The Ara-

[^1]maan in the north and north－east．It is called Syriac，in the form in which it appears in the Christian Aramæan literature， but Chaldee，as it exists in the Aramæan writings of Jews．To these writings belong some later portions of the Old Testament， viz．Ezra iv．8－vi．18，and vii．12－26；Dan．ii．4－vii．28．＊To the Chaldee is closely allied the Samaritan，both exhibiting a frequent admixture of Hebrew forms．The Aramæan of the Natsorraans（John＇s disciples，Sabiit）is a very degenerate dia－ lect，but the vernacular Syriac of the present day is still more corrupt．$\ddagger$ c）The Hebrew，with which the Canaanitish and Phernician（Punic）stands in close connexion．

The above languages stand to each other in much the same relation，as those of the Germanic family（Gothic，ancient North－ ern，Danish，Swedish；High and Low German in more ancient and more modern forms），or as those of the Slavic（Lithuanian， Lettish ；ancient Slavic，Servian，Russian；Polish，Bohemian）． They are now either wholly extinct，as the Phœnician；or they exist only in a degenerate form，as the Aramæan among the Syrian Christians in Mesopotamia and Kûrdistan，the Ethiopic in the newer Abyssinian dialects（Tigré，Amharic），and also the Hebrew among a portion of the Jews（although these in their writings especially study the reproduction of the Old Testament language）．The Arabic is the only one that has not only kept to this day its original abode，Arabia proper，but also spread itself on all sides into the districts of other tongues．

The Shemitish family of languages was bordered on the east and north by another still more widely extended，which spread itself，under most diverse forms，from India to the west of Europe，and which is called the Indo－Germanic，as embracing the Indian（Sanskrit），ancient and modern Persian，Greek，Latin，Slavic，and Gothic，together with the other Gerınan languages．With the ancient Egyptian，from which the Coptic is derived， the Shemitish came many ways into contact in very early times．Both have accordingly much in common，but the relation between them is not yet accurately defined．$\S$ The Chinese，the Japanese，the Tartar，and other languages have a fundamentally different character．

[^2]3. The grammatical structure of the Shemitish languages has many peculiarities, which, taken together, constitute its special character, although many of them are found by themselves in other tongues. These peculiarities are: a) Among the consonants, which always form the body of these languages, are many gutturals of several grades ; the vowels, having their origin in the three primary sounds ( $a, i, u$ ), subserve more subordinate distinctions ; $b$ ) most of the radical words consist of three consonants; c) the verb has only two tenses, but great regularity and analogy prevail in the formation of verbals; d) the noun has only two genders and a more simple indication of case ; $e$ ) in the pronoun all oblique cases are indicated by appended forms (suffixa) ; f) scarcely any compounds appear in verbs or nouns (except proper names) $; g$ ) in the syntax is found a simple combination of sentences, without much artificial subordination of members.
4. Also in respect to the lexicon, the Shemitish tongues vary essentially from the Indo-Germanic ; yet they appear to have more in common here than in the grammar. A great number of stems and roots* resemble in sound those of the Indo-Germanic class. But if we exclude the expressions obviously borrowed (see below), we shall reduce the actual similarity, partly to words which imitate sounds (onomatopoetica), and partly to those in which the same or similar sense follows from the nature of the same sound, according to a universal law of human speech. Neither of which can establish a historic (gentilic) affinity, which cannot be proved without agreement also in grammatical structure. $\dagger$

Benfey aber das Verhaltniss der agypt. Sprache zum semit. Sprachstamme, Leipzig, 1844 , 8vo.

* For the use of the terms, stems and roots, see § 30 , Remarks 1 and 2.-Tr.
$\dagger$ Gesenius has attempted, in the later editions of his Lexicon, and in his Thesaurus Linguæ Hebrææ, to exhibit the points of contact between the Shemitish and the Indo-Germanic languages, and others have carried this comparison farther, or taken it up in their own fashion. A remote connexion between these languages cannot be denied, and therefore a comparative investigation of them is of value for lexicography; but one needs great caution and a comprehensive knowledge of the relations of sounds in both families, in order to avoid error and deception in comparing them. In the present state of the investigation, there is almost as much merit in rejecting that which does not bear all the marks of affi-

Onomatopoetic roots, that are found also in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and
 lick, Welsh* llio]; לנָּנָ (kindred roots
 $\chi \propto \varrho \alpha ́ \tau \tau \omega$ [Welsh carthu, craith], Persian khariden, Ital. grattare, French gratter, Eng. grate, scratch, Germ. kratzen; F고, frango, Germ. brechen [our break, Welsh brech, briv], \&c. An example somewhat different is am, ham (sam), gam, kam, in the sense of together. Hence in Heb. cpr
 (whence 텬 also), A rab. yad collect; Persian hem, hemeh, at once; Sansk.
 xotsós, Lat. cum, cumulus, cunctus [Welsh cym= Lat. com], with the corresponding sibilant Sansk. sum, Greek $\sigma v^{\prime} v, \xi_{v}^{\prime} v, ~ s u v o^{\prime}=x o u v{ }^{\prime}$, Goth. sama, Germ. sammt, sammeln. [Yet Rödiger thinks, contrary to Gesenius, that much in this list is of very doubtful affinity.]

Essentially different from this more internal relationship between the languages, is the adoption of words by one out of another (borrowed words). Thus,-
a) When Indian, Egyptian, and Persian objects are called in Hebrew by their native names; e. g. (Egyption yero) river, the Nile; nnw

 also in the Greek, as Пip (Sansk. kapi) ape, x $\boldsymbol{\eta} \pi o s, x \ddot{\eta} \beta$ os;
 peacocks.
b) When Shemitish words for the products of Asia have passed over to the Greeks along with the things; e.g. Vּヨ, $\beta$ viorog, byssus; ;
 num, cumin.
5. The Shemitish writing had from the beginning this striking imperfection, that only the consonants (with which the signification of the word always connects itself) were given in the line as real letters. Of the vowels only the longer ones, and
nity, as in discovering what may at first s.g...appear to agree. And it is already an established result, that these two families of languages do not stand in a sisterly or any close relationship to each other, and that the characteristic structure of both must be dissected before we can find the original parts which they possess in common. This comparative analysis, however, belongs to the Lexicon rather than to the Grammar.

* That the Celtic dialects (not unlike the Shemitish in their relation to each other. namely, Welsh, Cornish. Armorican or dialect of Brittany ; Gaelic, Erse; Manks) belong to the Indo Ge mmanic family admits of abundant proof; see Prichard's Eastern Origin of the Celtic Nations, and Pictet de l'Affinité des Langues Celtiques avec le Sanscrit.-Tr.
even these not always, were represented by certain consonants (§7). It was not till a later period that all the vowels were indicated by means of small signs ( $\$ 8$ ) attached to the letters (points or strokes above and below the line), but which were wholly omitted for more practised readers. These languages are written always from right to left. The Æthiopic is the only exception ; but its deviation from the Shemitish usage is probably an innovation by the first missionaries who introduced Christianity into that country, for its earlier mode of writing was, like the kindred southern Arabic (Himyaritic), also from right to left.* However dissimilar the Shemitish written characters may now appear, they have undoubtedly all come, by various modifications, from one and the same original alphabet, of which the truest copy now extant is the Phœnician, from which also the ancient Greek, and through it all other European, characters were derived.

For a view of the Phœenician alphabet and of the oriental and occidental characters immediately derived therefrom, see Gesenii Monumenta Phounicia, Tabb. $1-5$, comp. p. 15 , \&c., and his article Paläographie in Ersch und Gruber's Encyclopädie, with its proper illustration in Taf. 1.
6. In regard to the relative age of these languages, the oldest written works ( $\$ 2$ ) are found in Hebrew ; the Aramæan begins about the time of Cyrus (in the book of Ezra) ; the Arabic not till the earliest centuries after Christ (Himyaritic inscriptions); the Ethiopic versisn of the Bible in the fourth century ; and the northern Arabic literature since the sixth century. But the progress of a language in the mouth of a people depends on causes quite distinct from the expansion of a literature; and often the structure of a language is materially altered, before it possesses a literature, by early contact with foreign tongues. So in the Shemitish department, the Aramæan dialects exhibit the earliest and greatest decay, and next to them the Hebrew-Canaanitish; the Arabic was the longest to maintain the natural fulness of its form, being preserved quiet and undisturbed among the secluded tribes of the desert, until the Mahomedan revolutions, when it suffered considerable decay. It was not till this much later period that the Arabic reached nearly the same point at which

[^3]we find the Hebrew even as early as the times of the Old Testament.

This accounts for the facts (which some, without reason, have considered surprising) that the ancient Hebrew in its grammatical structure agrees more with the modern Arabic than with the ancient, and that the latter, although it becomes historically known at a later period than the other Shemitish languages, yet takes, in many respects, a place among them similar to that which the Sanskrit occupies among the Indo-Germanic. The Lithuanian, as compared with the other tongues properly called Slavic, shows how a language may preserve its fuller structure even in the midst of decaying sister tongues. So the Doric held fast with greater tenacity older sounds and forms; and so the Friesic and Icelandic among the German and Northern languages. But even the most steadfast and enduring structure in a language often deteriorates in single forms and inflexions, while, on the other hand, we find here and there, in the midst of universal decay, traces of the original and the ancient. Such is the case with the Shemitish languages. Even the Arabic has its chasms and its later growth; yet in general it is entitled to the precedence, particularly in its vowel system.

To establish and work out these principles belongs to a comparative grammar of the Shemitish languages. But it follows from what has been advanced-1) that the Hebrew language, as it appears in the ancient sacred literature of the Jews, has suffered more considerably in its structure than the Arabic, which appears later in our historical horizon; 2) that yet we cannot concede to the Arabic the priority in all respects; 3) that finally, it is a mistake to suppose, as some do, that the Aramæan, or, account of its simplicity (occasioned by derangement of structure and cur tailing of forms), exhibits in the most original form the speech of the Shemites.

On the character, literature, grammars, and lexicons of these languages, see Gesenius's Preface to Meb. Manduorterbuch, from 2d to 4th edition. [Translated in the American Biblical Repository, vol. iii.]

Sect. 2.

## HISTORY OF THE HEBREW AS A LIVING LANGUAGE.

See Gesenius's Geschichte der hebräischen Sprache und Schrift. Leipzig, 1815. \$§ 5-18.

1. This language was the mother tongue of the Hebrew or Israelitish people, during the period of their independence. The
 £́ßociiori), does not occur in the Old Testament, and appears rather to have been the name in use among those who were not Israelites. It is called, Is. xix. 18 (poet.) language of Canaan
from the country in which it was spoken). In 2 Kings xviii. 26 (comp. Is. xxxvi. 11, 13), and Neh. xiii. 24, persons are said to speak יִהּהִיִית Judaicè, in the Jews' language, in accordance with the later usage which arose after the removal of the ten tribes, when the name Jew was extended to the whole nation (Jer., Neh., Esth.).

Of the names Hebrews (םּבּבים, 'Eßoxĩol, Hebrai) and Israelites
 themselves; the former was the name by which they were known among foreigners, on which account it is scarcely used in the Old Testament, except when they are distinguished from another people (Gen. xl. 15; xliii. 32), or when persons who are not Israelites are introduced as speaking (Gen. xxxix. 14, 17; xli. 12; comp. the Lex. under (יְבְי). The Greeks and Romans, as Pausanias, Josephus, Tacitus, use only the name Hebrews. It is properly an appellative, meaning what is beyond, people from the country on the other side, and it is formed by the addition of the derivative syllable $\urcorner$ - ( $(\$ 85$, No. 5) from a land on the other side, applied especially to a country beyond the Euphrates. This appellation was probably given to the tribes who, under Abraham, migrated from regions east of the Euphrates into the land of Canaan. See Gen. xiv. 13. The Hebrew genealogists explain it, as a patronymic, by sons of Eber. Gen. x. 21. Num. xxiv. 24.

In the writings of the New Testament, the term Hebrew ( $£ \beta$ हодü̈rti, John
 also applied to what was then the vernacular language of Palestine (see No. 5 of this section), in distinction from the Greek. Josephus, who died about 95 A. D., understands by it the ancient Hebrew as well as the vernacular of his time.

The name lingua sancta was first given to the ancient Hebrew in the Chaldee versions of the Old Testament, because it was the language of the sacred books, in distinction from the Chaldee, the popular language, which was called lingua profena.
2. In the oldest written monuments of this language, contained in the Pentateuch, we find it in nearly the same form in which it appears down to the Babylonish exile, and even later ; and we have no historical documents of an earlier date, by which we can investigate its origin and formation. So far as we can trace its history, Canaan was its home; it was essentially the language of the Canaanitish or Phœnician* race, by whom Pa-

[^4]lestine was inhabited before the immigration of Abraham's posterity, became the adopted language of his descendants, was with them transferred to Egypt and brought back to Canaan.

That the Canaanitish tribes in Palestine spoke the language now called Hebrew, is proved by the names of persons and places; e. g. מַּלְִּּי־צֶּ leing of righteousness ; p. pook-turon.

No less do the remaining fragments of the Phenician and Punic language agree with the Hebrew. These are found, partly, in their own peculiar character ( $\$ 1,5$ ) in inscriptions (about 70 in number) and on coins (see copies in Gesenii Monumenta Pheenicia, T. III. tabb. 6-48, and the explanations on pp. 90-323), and partly in ancient Greek and Latin authors, as, for instance, in Plauti Pconulus, 5, 1. 2, where an entire piece is preserved. From the former source we ascertain the native orthography, and from the latter the pronunciation; so that from both together we get a distinct notion of this language, and of its relation to the Hebrew.

The most important deviations in the orthography and inflexion of words are : 1) an almost constant omission of the vowel-lettere ( $\$ 7,2$ );
 (ath) even in the absolute state $(\$ 79,2) ; 3)$ the article expressed as often by $x$ as by $\pi(\S 35)$. More striking are the deviations in pronunciation,

 find $y$ often in place of short $i$ and $e$; e.g. .":̨? ?, ynnynnu (ecce eum);
 See a collection of the grammatical peculiarities in Mon. Phcenicia, p. 430, \&c.
3. The remains of this language, which are extant in the Old Testament, enable us to distinguish but two periods in its history. The first, which may be called its golden age, extends to the close of the Babylonish exile; at which epoch the second, or silver age, commences.

The former embraces the larger portion of the books of the Old Testament ; viz., of prose writings (historical), the Pentateuch, Judges, Ruth, Samuel, Kings; of poetical writings, the Psalms (with the exception of a few later ones), the Proverbs of Solomon, Canticles, Job; of the earlier prophets, in the following chronological order:-Joel, Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, Micah, Nahum, Zcphaniah, Habakknk, Obadiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel. The writings of the last two, who lived and taught just before the commencement and during the first years of the captivity, as well as the latter part of the book of Isaiah (chapters 40-66, together
with some of the earlier chapters＊），stand on the borders of both the golden and the silver age．

The point of time at which we should date the commencement of this period，and of Hebrew literature in general，is certainly as early as Moses， even if the Pentateuch did not proceed from him in its present form．For the history of the language，and for our present object，it is sufficient to remark，that the Pentateuch certainly contains some peculiarities of lan－ guage which have the appearance of archaisms．When these books were composed，the words he（ $\$ 32$ ，Rem．6），and young man，were still of the common gender，and used also for she，and young woman（like $\dot{\delta} \pi \alpha \tilde{u} \varsigma$ and $\dot{\eta} \pi \alpha \tilde{u} \varsigma)$ ．Some harsh forms of words，e．g．P are common in these books，are exchanged in others for the softer ones， P⿰丬⿳⿻コ一冖又丶 ，

On the other hand，in Jeremiah and Ezekiel are found decided traces of the Aramæan colouring which distinguishes the language of the second or silver age．See No． 5.
4．Although the different writers and books have certainly their peculiarities，yet we discover in them no such diversities of style，as will materially aid us in tracing the history of the lan－ guage during this period．In respect to several of them，more－ over，especially the anonymous historical books，the date of com－ position cannot be definitively settled．But the language of poetry is everywhere distinguished from prose，not only by a rhythm consisting in measured parallel members，but also by peculiar words，forms，and significations of words，and con－ structions in syntax ；although this distinction is not so strongly marked as it is，for example，in Greek．Of these poetical idions， however，the greater part occur in the kindred languages，espe－ cially the Aramæan，as the common forms of expression，and are， probably，to be historically regarded partly as archaisms，which were retained in poetry，and partly as enrichments，which the poets who knew Aramæan transferred into the Hebrew．$\dagger$ The prophets，moreover，in respect to language and rhythm，are to be

[^5]regarded generally as poets, except that in their poetical discourses the sentences run on to greater length, and the parallelism is less measured and regular, than in the writings of those who are properly styled poets. The writings of the later prophets exhibit less and less of this poetic character, until their style scarcely differs from prose.

On the rhythm of Hebrew poetry, see especially De Wette's Commentar über die Psalmen, Einleitung, § 7,* (4th edition, Heidelberg, 1836). [The subject is briefly treated in the Reading Book at the end of this Grammar. See also Ewald's Poet. Bücher des A. Bundes, Th. I., and Nordheimer's Heb. Grammar, $\$ 1120$ - 1130.]

Of poetical words, for which others are used in prose, the following are examples, viz. Úi葹

Under poetical significations of words may be ranked the use of certain

 dearest, for life.

Examples of poetical forms are, the longer or plural forms of preposi-


 Syntax, are, the far less frequent use of the article, of the relative, and of the sign of the accusative $\mathbb{N}$; the use of the construct state even before prepositions, and of the apocopated future in the signification of the common future ( $\$ 48,4$ ); and in general a forcible brevity of expression.
5. The second or silver age of the Hebrew language and literature, extending from the return of the Jews from the exile to the time of the Maccabees, about 160 years before Christ, is chiefly distinguished by an approximation to the Aramæan or Chaldee dialect. To the use of this dialect, so nearly related to the Hebrew, the Jews easily accustomed themselves while in Babylonia ; and after their return it became the popular language, exerting a constantly increasing influence on the ancient Hebrew as the language of books, in prose as well as poetry, and at last banishing it from the mouth of the people. Yet the Hebrew continued to be known and written by learned Jews.

The relation of the two languages, as they existed together during this period, may be well illustrated by that of the High and Low German in Lower Saxony, or still better by that of the High German and the popular dialects in Southern Germany and Switzerland; for in these, cases the

[^6]popular dialect exerts more or less influence on the High German, both oral and written, of cultivated society. It is a false impression, derived from a misinterpretation of Neh. viii. 8, that the Jews, during their exile, had wholly forgotten their ancient language, and were obliged to learn its meaning from the priests and scribes.
The writings of the Old Testament which belong to this second period, and in all of which this Chaldee colouring appears, though in different degrees, are the following, viz., -1 and 2 Chronicles, Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther ; the prophetical books of Jonah,* Haggai, Zechariah, Malachi, Daniel ; of the poetical writings, Eicclesiastes, and the later Psalms. These books are also, as literary works, decidedly inferior to those of an earlier date; though this period is not wanting in compositions, which, in purity of language and poetic merit, scarcely yield to the productions of the golden age; e. g. several of the later Psalms (cxx. \&c., cxxxvii., cxxxix.).

To this later form of the language, as affected by the influence of the Chaldee, belong,



Significations of words; e.g. עָּמַּ (to say) to command; answer) to commence speaking.

Peculiarities of grammar ; e. g. the frequent scriptio plena of $i$ and ${ }^{4}$-,
 change of $\Pi_{\top}$ and $\aleph$ final; the very frequent use of substantives in $\%$, $1-\pi \cdot, \& c$.

We are not to regard as Chaldaisms all the peculiarities of these later writers. Some of them are not found in Chaldee, and seem to have belonged to the Hebrew popular dialect, especially in northern Palestine, where, perhaps, Judges and Canticles [and Jonah].were composed; and hence we may account for the use in these more ancient books of $\notin$ for


The few solitary Chaldaisms which occur in the writings of the golden gge, may be accounted for by the fact, that these books passed through the hands of copyists whose language was the Chaldee.

Remark 1. Of peculiarities of dialect, only a few slight traces are found. Thus from Judges xii. 6, it appears that the Ephraimites always pronounced $\mathbb{U}$ as or 0 ; and in Neh. xiii. 23, 24, the dialect of Ashdod (of the Philistines) is mentioned.
2. It is not to be supposed that the remnants which we possess of Hebrew literature contain all the treasures of the ancient language, which must have been more copious and richer than now appears in the canonical

[^7]books of the Old Testament, which are only a part of the national literature of the ancient Hebrews.

## Sect. 3.

WORKS ON THE GRAMMAR OF THE HEBREW LANGUAGE
(Gesenius's Gesch. der hebr. Sprache, 8\$ 19-39.)
After the extinction of the Hebrew as a spoken language, and the nearly contemporaneous collection of the books of the Old Testament, the Jews applied themselves to the preparation of translations of this their sacred codex, and to the criticism and interpretation of its text. The oldest version is that into Greek by the so-called Seventy interpreters (LXX). It was executed by several translators, and at different periods of time. The work was begun with the translation of the Pentateuch, under Ptolemy Philadelphus, at Alexandria. It was designed to meet the wants of Jews residing in Alexandria and other Grecian cities, and was made, in part, from knowledge of the Hebrew whilst it was yet a living language. At a later period, the Chaldee translations or 'Targums (תַּרְגּמִּין, i. e. translations) were made in Palestine and Babylonia. The interpretations, drawn in part from alleged traditions, relate almost exclusively to civil and ritual laws, and to doctrinal theology. These, as well as the equally unscientific observations on various readings, are preserved in the Talmud, of which the first part (Mishna) was composed in the third century of the Christian era, the second part (Gemara) not till the sixth. The Mishna forms the commencement of the modern Hebrew literature, but the language of the Gemara has more a Chaldee colouring.
2. To the period of time between the conclusion of the Talmud, and the age of the first writers on the grammar of the language, belongs, chiefly, the application of vowel-signs to the text $(\$ 7,3)$. Of the same period is the collection of critical observations called the Masora (מסטָּ, traditio), by which the still received text of the Old Testament was settled, and from which it bears the name of the Masoretic text.

The various readings of the $Q^{e}$ ri are the most important portion of the Masora (§ 17). We must not confound the composition of the Masora with the furnishing of the sacred text with the points. The latter is a work of earlier date and much more ability than the former.
3. The first attempts to illustrate the grammar of the lan. guage were made, after the example of the Arabian scholars, in the ninth century. What was done by Saadia (ob. 942) in this department is wholly lost. But there are still extant, in manuscript, the works of R. Judah Chayug (called also Abu Zakaria Yahya, about the year 1040) and R. Jona (Abulwalîd Merwân ben Gannach, about 1050), composed in the Arabic language. Aided by these labours, Abraham ben Ezra (about 1150) and R. David Kimchi (1190-1200) acquired among Jewish scholars a classical reputation as the grammarians of the language. From these earliest writers on the subject are derived many of the methods of classification and of the technical terms which are still in part employed; e.g. the use of the forms and letters of the verb פעל (formerly employed as a paradigm) in designating the conjugations, and the different classes of irregular verbs; the voces memoriales, as
4. The father of Hebrew philology, among Christians, was the celebrated Reuchlin (ob. 1522), to whom Greek literature also is so much indebted. He, however, as well as the grammarians down to Joh. Buxtorf (ob. 1629), adhered closely to Jewish tradition. After the middle of the seventeenth century the field of view gradually widened; and the study of the kindred languages, through the labours, especially, of Alb. Schultens (ob. 1750 ) and N. W. Schröder (ob. 1798), led to important results in the science of Hebrew grammar.

To estimate correctly those works which have since appeared, and which are of permanent, scientific value, it is necessary to understand what is required of one who attempts to exhibit the grammar of an ancient language. This is, in general, 1) a correct observation and a systematic arrangement of all the phenomena of the language ; 2) the explanation of these phenomena, partly by comparing them with one another and with analogous appearances in the kindred languages, partly from the general analogy and philosophy of language. The first may be called

[^8]the historical, and the second the philosophical element in grammar.
[The most valuable grammatical works are:-
Gesenius's Lehrgebraude der hebr. Sprache. Leipzig. 1817.
Lee's Lectures on Hebrew Grammar. Lond. 1827. Latest edit. 1844,
Ewald's Ausführliches Lehrbuch der heb. Sprache. Leipzig. 1844.
Nordheimer's Critical Grammar of the Hebrew Language. 2 vols New-York. 1841. The best extant.

Hupfeld's Ausführliche hebr. Grammatik. Cassel. 1841. 1 Thl. 1 Abschnitt. Not yet finished.]

## Sect. 4.

## DIVISION AND ARRANGEMENT OF GRAMMAR.

The division and arrangement of Hebrew grammar are suggested by the three elementary parts of every language; viz. 1) sounds expressed by letters, and their union into syllables; 2) words; and 3) sentences.

The first part (which treats of the elements) contains, therefore, instruction respecting the sounds, and the representation of them by letters. It teaches the art of expressing the written signs by the sounds which they represent (orthoepy), and of writing words agreeably to established usage (orthography). It treats, moreover, of sounds as connected into syllables and words, and exhibits the laws according to which this connexion takes place.

In the second part (which treats of grammatical forms and inflexions) words are regarded as formed into parts of speech. It treats, 1) of the formation of words, or the rise of the several parts of speecn from the roots, or from one another ; 2) of inflexions, i. e. of the various forms which words assume, according to their relation to other words, and to the sentence.

The third part (syntax) shows, 1) how the various inflexions of the language serve to modify the original meaning of words, and how other modifications, for which the language furnishes no forms, are expressed by periphrasis ; 2) assigns the laws by which the parts of speech are united into sentences (syntax in the stricter sense).

## PART FIRST.

## OF THE ELEMENTS.

## CHAPTER I. <br> OF READING AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

Sect. 5.
OF THE CONSONANTS, THEIR FORMS AND NAMES.

1. The Hebrew Alphabet consists of twenty-two consonants, some of which have also the power of vowels ( $£ 7,2$ ).
hebrew alphabet.*

| Furm. |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Reprosent- } \\ \text { ed by } \end{gathered}$ | Hebrew name. | Sounded as | Sigaification of the names. | Numerical value. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Final. | * | - or ${ }^{\text {, }}$ |  | $\hat{A}^{\prime}-l$ ěph | Ox | 1 |
|  | ב | b, bh | בֵּית | Bēth | House | 2 |
|  | $\downarrow$ | g, gh | 19x. | Gī'mèl | Camel | 3 |
|  | 7 | d, dh | กֹ่า | Dá'lěth | Door | 4 |
|  | $\pi$ | h | 재 | $H_{\bar{e}}$ | Window | 5 |
|  | 7 | v | 7 | Vâv | Hook | 6 |
|  | $\dagger$ | z | TT |  | Weapon | 7 |
|  | $\pi$ | ch | תֵיחת | Chèth | Fence | 8 |
|  | v | t | הֵית | Tèth | Snake | 9 |
|  | , | y | ר רוֹד | Yōdh | Hand | 10 |
| 7 | 5 | k, kh | ไอ | Kăph | The hand bent | 20 |
|  | 3 | 1 | \% | $L a^{\prime}-m e ̀ d h ~$ | Ox-goad | 30 |
| $\square$ | $\square$ | m | 品 | Mēm | Water | 40 |
| \} | \% | n | 107 | Nūn | Fish | 50 |
|  | 0 | s | ¢ِ | Sát ${ }^{\prime}-m e ̀ k h$ | Prop | 60 |
|  | y | y or " | צִַׁ | $A^{\prime}-y$ ¢̆ $n$ | Eye | 70 |
| - | 5 | $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{ph}$ | N | $P_{\bar{e}}$ | Mouth | 80 |
| $\dagger$ | \% | ts | דָּדֵי | Tsâ-dhế | Fish-hook | 90 |
|  | P | q | קוֹ | Qōph | Back of the head | 100 |
|  | 7 | r | ריטִ | Resh | Head | 200 |
|  | * | sh, s | שִׁיֶן | Shīn | Tooth | 300 |
|  | ת | t , th | \% | Tâv | Cross | 400 |

[^9]2．The letters now in use，with which the manuscripts of the Old Testament are written（called the Assyrian or square cha－ racter），are not of the original form．On the coins of the Macca－ bæan princes is found another character，which，at an earlier period，was probably in general use，and which bears a strong resemblance to the Samaritan and Phœnician letters（ $\$ 1,5$ ）． The square letter may also be traced back to the Phœenician； but it has most agreement with certain Aramæan inscriptions found in Egypt and at Palmyra．＊

3．The five characters which liave a different form at the end of a word（final letters），$\gamma, \bar{\square}, 7, \square, 7, \uparrow$ terminate（with the exception of $\square$ ，）in a perpendicular stroke directed downwards， whilst the common form lias a horizontal connecting line， directed towards the following letter．

4．Hebrew is read from right to left．The division of a word at the end of a line is not allowed．To complete a line，certain letters（dilatabiles）are at times dilated．These are in our printed books the five following－

1．The figures of the letters were originally hasty and rude represent－ ations of visible objects，the names of which began with the sounds of the several characters；e．g． 7 ，$\backslash$ ，the rude figure of a camel＇s neck，denotes
 eye， alphabet，the similarity of the figures to the object signified by the names may still be seen for the most part，and even in the square character it appears yet in some letters；e．g．$\uparrow, \boldsymbol{3}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}$ ．

The most probable signification of each name is given in the alphabet． ［For further information see the initial articles under the several letters in Gesenius＇s Hebrew Lexicon．］

However certain it is，on the one hand，that the Shemites were the first to adopt this alphabet，yet it is highly probable，on the other，that the Egyptian writing（the so－called phonetic hieroglyphics）suggested the principle though not the figures；for these hieroglyphic characters，like－ wise，indicate not the pictured object itself（as in the kyriologic hierogly－

[^10]phics), but the initial sound in its name; e.g. the hand, tot, indicates the letter $t$; the lion, laboi, the letter l.*
2. The order of the letters (the antiquity of which is clearly proved by the alphabetical poetic compositions in Ps. xxv., xxxiv., xxxvii., cxix. Lam. i.-iv.) certainly depended originally on a grammatical consideration of the sounds, as we may see from the occurrence in succession of the three softest labial, palatal, and dental sounds, viz. $\beth, \pm, 7$, also of the three liquids, $\boldsymbol{\jmath}, \boldsymbol{>}, \boldsymbol{y}$, and other similar arrangements (see Lepsius's sprachvergleichende Abhandlungen, Berlin, 1836, No. 1); but yet other considerations and influences must also have had some effect upon it, for it is certainly not a mere accident, that two letters representing a hand (Yodh and Kaph), also two exhibiting the head (Qoph and Resh), are put together, as is done also with several characters denoting objects which are connected (Mem and Nun, Ain and $P e$ ).

Both the names and the order of the letters (with a trifling alteration) passed over from the Phœnician into the Greek, in which the letters, from Alpha to Tau, correspond to the ancient alphabet.
3. The letters are used also for signs of number, as the Hebrews had no special arithmetical characters or ciphers. This numeral use [given in the table of the alphabet] did not, however, take place in the O. T. text, but is found first on coins of the Maccabees (middle of 2d cent. B. C.). It is now employed in the editions of the Bible for counting the chapters and verses. As in the numeral system of the Greeks, the units are denoted by
 dreds, from 500-900, are sometimes denoted by the five final letters, thus, $7500,-600, j 700,-800, \% 900$; and sometimes by $\pi=400$, with the addition of the remaining hundreds, as 500 . In combining different numbers the greater is put first, as $\mathbb{N}^{\wedge} 11, \mathbb{N}=\mathrm{P} 121$. Fifteen is marked by
 commences. The thousands are denoted by the units with two dots above, as $\approx 1000$.
4. Abbreviations of words are not found in the text of the O. T. On coins, however, they occur, and they are in common use by the later Jews. The sign of abbreviation is an oblique stroke, as 'יָּ quis, ' 'ג ו for

Sect. 6.

## PRONUNCIATION AND DIVISION OF CONSONANTS.

1. It is of the greatest importance to understand the original sound of every consonant, since very many grammatical pecu-

[^11]liarities and changes ( $\$ 18, \& c$.) are regulated and explained by the pronunciation. Our knowledge of this is derived partly from the pronunciation of the kindred dialects, particularly of the yet living Arabic, partly from observing the resemblance and interchange of letters in the Hebrew itself ( $\$ 19$ ), partly from the tradition of the Jews.*

The pronunciation of the Jews of the present day is not uniform. The Polish and German Jews adopt the Syriac, while the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, whom most Christian scholars (after the example of Reuchlin) follow, more properly prefer the Arabic pronunciation.

The manner in which the Seventy have written Hebrew proper names in Greek letters, furnishes an older tradition of greater weight. Several, however, of the Hebrew sounds they were unable to represent for want of corresponding characters in the Greek language; e. g. J, $\mathbb{H}$, in which cases they had to make what shifts they could.
2. The following list embraces those consonants whose pronunciation requires special attention, exhibiting in connexion those which bear any resemblance in sound to each other.

1. Ainong the gutturals, $\mathbf{x}$ is the lightest, a scarcely audible breathing from the lungs, the spiritus lenis of the Greeks; similar to $n$, but softer. Even before a vowel, it is almost lost upon the ear ( in the French habit, homme [or Eng. hour]. After a vowel it is often not heard at all, except in connexion with the preceding vowel sound, with which it combines its own (
$\pi$ before a vowel, is exactly our $h$ (spiritus asper); after a vowel at the end of words, it may like $\kappa$ unite its sound with that of the preceding vowel ( which is regularly the case at the end of a syllable in the middle of a word, as in ఫֶ nèh-păkh (§7, 2, and § 14).
$\pm$ is nearly related to $\kappa$; and is a sound peculiar to the organs of the Shemitish race. Its hardest sound is that of a $g$ slightly rattled in the throat, as
 Arabian, the first often strikes the ear like a soft guttural $r$, the second as a

[^12]sort of vowel sound like $a$. It is the prevailing usage, at present, to pass over $\geq$ as well as $\mathbb{x}$ in reading the language, and in writing its words with Roman or occidental letters, e. g. בֵּלִ, Eli, צֶקָּלֵּ Amalek. The best representation we could give of it in our letters would be $g h$ or ${ }^{r} g$, as $\Sigma \mathfrak{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{3}$,
 of it by the Jews is quite false.
$\pi$ is the hardest of the guttural sounds. It is a guttural ch, as uttered by the Swiss [and Welsh], resembling the Spanish $x$ and $j$. While the Hebrew was a living language this letter had two grades of sound, being uttered feebly in some words and more strongly in others.*
$\urcorner$ also the Hebrews frequently pronounced with a hoarse guttural sound, not as a lingual made by the vibration of the tongue. Hence it is not merely to be reckoned among the liquids ( $l, m, n, r$ ), but, in several of its properties, it belongs also to the class of gutturals. ( $\S 22,5$.
2. In sibilant sounds the Hebrew language is rich, more so than the kindred dialects, especially the Aramæan, which adopts instead of them the flat, lingual sounds.
$\pm$ and were originally one letter (pronounced without doubt like sh), and in unpointed Hebrew this is still the case. But as this sound was in many words very soft, approaching to that of $s$, the grammarians distinguished this double pronunciation by the diacritic point into 4 sh (which occurs most frequently), and iv s.
iv resembled 0 in pronunciation: it differed from this letter however, and was probably uttered more strongly, being nearly related to $\mathbb{H}$. Hence סָּ to close up, and to reward, have different meanings, being distinct roots, as also $3 \geq{ }^{\circ}$ to be foolish, and $\mathfrak{T}$ to be wise. At a later period this distinction was lost, and hence the Syrians employed only $\circ$ for both, and the Arabians only it. They also began to be interchanged even in
 folly, Eccles. i. 17.
\% was like $d s$ (hence in the Septuagint $\zeta$ ), as \% was $1 s$. [It is best represented by our $z$.]
3. $P$ and $\circlearrowright$ differ essentially from $\supset$ and $\pi$. The former (as also $\Psi$ ) are uttered with strong articulation, and with a compression of the organs of speech in the back part of the mouth.

## 3. The six consonants,

have a twofold pronunciation : $\dagger$ 1) a harder, more slender sound

[^13]（temuis），as $b, g, d, k, p, t$ ，and 2）a soft sound uttered with a gentle aspiration（aspirata）．The harder sound is the original． It is found at the beginning of words and syllables，when there is no vowel inmediately preceding，and it is indicated by a point in the letter（Daghesh lene），as $\exists$（ $\$ 13$ ）．The aspirated sound occurs after a vowel immediately preceding，and is denoted in manuscripts by Raphe（ $\$ 14,2$ ），but in the printed text it is known by the absence of the Daghesh．In some of these letters （especially ${ }^{\eta}$ ）the difference is less perceptible to our ear．The modern Greeks aspirate distinctly $\beta, \gamma, \delta$ ，and the Danes $d$ at the end of a word．The Greeks have two characters for the two sounds of the other letters of this class，as $\Xi x, \supset \chi, \boxminus \pi, \doteq \varphi$ ， ร $\tau, \boldsymbol{ก} \vartheta$ ．

For the cases exactly in which the one pronunciation or the other occurs， see $\S 21$ ．The modern Jews sound the aspirated $\mathcal{Z}$ as $v$ ，and the $\pi$ nearly

4．After what has been said，the usual division of the conso－ nants according to the organs of speech employed in uttering them，will be more intelligible and useful．The common divi－ sion is as follows：－
a）Gutturals，$\pi, \Pi, \pm, \star$ （یֵהִחִ）
b）Palatals，$P, 2, \pm$, ，
c）Linguals，$\because, 5,7$ ，with $2, \zeta$
d）Dentals or sibilants，¥，せ，O，†
e）Labials，$ワ, \beth, \square$,
The letter $\urcorner$ partakes of the character of both the first and fourth classes．

The liquids also $\urcorner, 2, \square, b$ ，which have in many respects a common character，are to be regarded as a separate class．

In the Hebrew，as well as in all the Shemitish dialects，the strength and harshness of pronunciation，which characterized the earlier periods of the language，gradually gave way to more soft and feeble sounds．In this way many nice distinctions of the earlier pronunciation were neglected and lost．

This appears，1）in the preference of the softer letters；e．g． （see § 2,3, Rem．），Syr．P⿰丬⿳⿻コ一冖又丶 ；2）in the pronunciation of the same letter；

[^14]thus in Syriac has always a feeble sound, while the Galileans uttered it as well as $\pi$ like $\kappa$; in $\mathbb{E}$ thiopic $\mathscr{U}$ has the sound of $s, \pi$ that of $h$.

## Sect. 7.

## OF THE VOWELS IN GENERAL, VOWEL-LETTERS, AND VOWEL-SIGNS.

1. That the scale of five vowels, $a, e, i, o, u$, proceeds from the three primary vowel sounds $A, I, U$, is even more distinctly seen in the Hebrew, and other Shemitish tongues, than in other languages. $E$ and $O$ arose from the union of $I$ and $U$ with a preceding short $A$, and are properly diphthongs contracted, $\hat{e}$ arising from $a i$, , $\hat{o}$ from $a u$, according to the following scheme* :-


The more ancient Arabic has not the vowels $\hat{\varepsilon}$ and $\hat{\delta}$, and always uses for them the diphthongs $a i$ and $a u$; e.g. $\because \sharp$, Arabic bain, ain, Arab. yaum. It is only in the modern popular language that these diphthongs are contracted into one sound. The close relation of those sounds appears from a comparison of the Greek and Latin (e. g. Cæsar, Kaĩ $\propto \varrho$; $\vartheta \alpha \tilde{\mu} \mu \alpha$, Ion. $\vartheta \tilde{\omega} \mu(x)$, from the French pronunciation of $a i$ and $a u$ [comp. in English $a i$ in said, and $a u$ in naught], and from the German popular dialects (auch, ôch].
2. With this is connected the manner of indicating the vowel sounds in writing. As only three principal vowel sounds were distinguished, no others were designated in writing ; and even these were represented not by appropriate signs, but by certain consonants employed for this purpose, whose feeble consonant power easily flowed into a vowel sound. Thus 7 (like the Lat. $V$ and the old Ger. $W$ ) represented $U$ and also $O$; (like the Lat. $i$ ) represented $I$ and $E$. The designation of $A$, the purest of all the vowels, an $\mathfrak{l}$ of most frequent occurrence, was regularly omitted, $\dagger$ except at the end of a word, where long $a$ was repre-

[^15]sented by $\pi$, and sometimes by $\kappa \mathrm{N}^{*}$ These two letters stood also for long $e$ and $o$.
[The above four letters (forming the mnemonic are commonly called quiescent or feeble letters.]

Even those two vowel-letters ( 7 and ${ }^{7}$ ) were used but sparingly, being employed only when the sounds which they represent were long. $\dagger$ In this case, also, they were sometimes omitted $(\$ 8,4)$. Every thing else relating to the tone and quantity of the vowel sounds, whether a consonant should be pronounced with or without a vowel, and even whether 9 and ' were to be regarded as vowels or consonants, the reader was to decide for himself.

Thus for exmaple, , קup might be read qatal, qutel, qatol, q'tol, qotel, qittel, qattel, quttal; 4ד, dabhar (a word), debher (a pestilence), dibber (he hath spoken), dabber (to speak), dobher (speaking), dubbar (it has been spoken); מות might be maveth' (death), or muth, moth (to die); בין might be read dōn, bên, băyin.
How imperfect and indefinite such a mode of writing was is easily seen, yet during the whole period in which the Hebrew was a spoken language no other signs for vowels were employed. Reading was, therefore, a harder task than with our more adequate modes of writing, and much must have been supplied by the reader's knowledge of the living mother tongue.
3. But when the Hebrew ceased to be a spoken language, and the danger of losing the correct pronunciation, as well as the perplexity arising from this indefinite mode of writing, continually increased, the vowel-signs or points were invented, which minutely settled what had previously been left uncertain. Of the date of this invention we have no account ; but a comparison of historical facts warrants the conclusion, that the vowel system

[^16]was not completed till after the seventh century of the Christian era. It was the work of Jewish scholars, well skilled in the language, who, it is highly probable, copied the example of the Syrian and Arabian grammarians.

See Gesch. d. hebr. Spr. S. 182 ff. and Hupfeld in den theolog. Studien und Kritiken, 1830, No. 3, where it is shown that the Talmud and Jerome make no mention of vowel-points.
4. This vowel system has, probably, for its basis the pronunciation of the Jews of Palestine ; and its consistency, as well as the analogy of the kindred languages, furnishes strong proof of its correctness, at least as a whole. Its authors have laboured to exhibit by signs the minute gradations of the vowel sounds, carefully marking even half vowels and helping sounds, spontaneously adopted in all languages, yet seldom expressed in writing. To the same labours we owe the different marks by which the sound of the consonants themselves is modified ( $\$ 11-14$ ), and the accents ( $\$ 515,16$ ).

In Arabic and Syriac the vowel system is much more simple. In the former are three signs for vowels, according to the three primary vowelsounds; in the latter there are five, viz., $a, e, i, o, u$. It is possible that the Hebrew also had at an earlier period a more simple vowel system, but no actual traces of it are found.

Sect. 8.

## OF THE VOWEL-SIGNS.*

1. Of full vowels, besides which there are also ceitain half vowels ( $\S 10,1.2)$, grammarians have generally reckoned ten, and divided them into five long and five short. As this division is simple and convenient for the learner, it is here presented $\dagger$ -

Long Vowels.


- Tsếrè, è, wّ̛ shèm.
--Chîr réq long, ì, ịִ bīn.
ì or - Chṓlèm, ō, לip qōl,




## Shorl Vowels.



- Séghōl, é, -†בֶּ bĕn.
- Chír réq short, i, ị mĭn.
- Qü'méts-chütứph, б, $\quad \mp \underset{\sim}{\circ}$ choq.
- Qưbbǜts, ŭ,

[^17]$\dagger$ It is not given in the two latest editions of the original. -Tr .

A more accurate and useful exhibition of the vowels, according to the three primary vowel sounds ( $£ 7,1.2$ ), is the following :-

First Class. For the A sound.
a) $\rceil$ Qä́mẽts, $\bar{u}, \hat{a}, \prod_{\tau} y \bar{a} d h, ~ \square_{T} q a ̂ m$.

c) - Sěghō'l, ü, as in the first syllable of $m$ ǘlěklh,

 like our $e$ in there].

Second Class. For the I and E sound.



Third Class. For the U and O sound.



$e)$ also - obtuse $\check{\varepsilon}$, so far as it springs from $u$ or $o$, as in

The names of the vowels are, according to the usage of the Shemitish grammarians, almost all taken from the form and action of the mouth in
 (of the mouth), gna gnashing, bלֶin fulness, from its full tone (also
 This last meaning belongs also to $\gamma \nsim$; ; and the reason why long $a$ and
 that the Rabbins gave to Qamets the impure sound of o, like the Swedish $\dot{\varepsilon} . \dagger$ The distinction between them is shown in §9. Only Seghol (לְix cluster of grapes) appears to be named after its form.

[^18]The names were, moreover, so formed that the sound of each vowel was heard in the first syllable; and in conformity to this, some write $\mathbb{S a}$ ghol, Qomets-chatuph, Qübbuts.
2. As appears in the above examples, the vowel-sign is regularly put under the consonant after which it is to be pronounced, $\rceil r \bar{u},\urcorner r a,\urcorner r \bar{e}\urcorner r$,$u , \&c. There is an exception to this rule$ in Pattach, when it stands under a guttural at the end of a word (Pattach furtive, see $\uparrow 22,2, b$ ), for it is then spoken before the consonant. We must also except Cholem (without Vav), which is put to the left over the letter, $\mathfrak{7}$ rō.

When Cholem (without Vav) and the diacritic point over $\boldsymbol{\cup}(\dot{\Psi}, \dot{\Psi})$ come
 she. (with two points), when no vowel stands under it, is sho, as


The figure 4 is sometimes sounded $o v$, the 1 being a consonant with Cholem before it, as $\quad$ ijb $l o-v e ̀$ (lending); and sometimes $v \sigma$, the Cholem


3. The vowels of the first class [for the $A$ sound] are, with he exception of - in the middle and of $\pi-, N-$ at the end of a word, indicated only by vowel-signs $(\$ 7,2)$; but in the two other classes [for the $I$ and $E$ sound and for the $U$ and $O$ sound] the long vowels are mostly expressed by vowel-letters, the uncertain sound of which is determined by the signs standing before or within them. Thus,
$\rightarrow$ may be determined by Chireq ( $\urcorner-)$, Tsere ( $\stackrel{-}{-})$, Segol ( $\urcorner-)$. 4 by Shureq ( ${ }^{7}$ ) and Cholem (i).*
In Arabic the long $a$ is regularly indicated by the vowel-letter Aleph $(\aleph-)$ written in the text, so that in it three vowel-letters answer to the three vowel-classes. In Hebrew the relation is somewhat different (§ 9,1 , and § 23, 2).
4. When in the second and third classes the long vowel is

* The vowel-sign which serves to determine the sound of the vowel-letter, is said to be homogeneous with that letter. Many, after the example of the Jewish grammarians, use here the expression, "the vowel-letter rests (quiesces) in the vowel sign." Hence the letters ${ }^{4}$ and $q^{\prime}$ (with $א$ and $\pi$, see § 23) are called litere quiescibiles; when they serve as vowels. quiescentes, when they are consonants, mobiles. But the expression is not suitable: we should rather say, "The vowel-letter is sounded as this or that vowel, or stands in place of the vowel." The vowel letters are also called by grammarians, matres lectionis [since they partly serve as guides in reading the unpointed text].
expressed without a vowel-letter, it is called scriptio defectiva, when with a vowel-letter, scriptio plena. Thus לip and are written fully, rib and ar defectively.

The choice of the full or the defective mode of writing is not always arbitrary, as there are certain cases in which only the one or the other is admissible. Thus the full form is necessary
 defective is most usual when the vowel is preceded by the analogous vowel-letter as consonant, e.g. םa for fitur

But in other cases much depended on the option of the transcribers, so

 served, however,
a) That the defective writing is used chiefly, though not constantly, when the word has increased at the end, and the vowel of the penultima has lost somewhat of its stress in consequence of the accent or tone of the word being moved forward [see § 29, 2], as

b) That in the later books of the Old Testament the full form, in the earlier the defective, is more usual.*
5. In the kindred dialects, when a vowel-letter has before it a vowel-sign that is not kindred or homogeneous, a diphthong is formed, e. g. $\urcorner_{\uparrow}-a u, \eta_{-}=e u,{ }^{\square}-a i$. But in Hebrew, according to the pronunciation handed down by the Jews, ${ }^{1}$ and ${ }^{4}$ retain here their consonant sound, so that we get $a v, e v, a y, \dagger$ e.g. $v \bar{a} v$, , $\mathfrak{\sharp}$ geev,


The LXX. give generally in these cases an actual diphthong, as in the Arabic, and this must be considered as an earlier mode of pronunciation; the modern Jewish pronunciation is, on the other hand, similar to the modern Greek, in which $\alpha \dot{v}, \varepsilon u$ sound like $a v, e v$. In the manuscripts Yodh and Vav are, in this case, even marked with Mappiq (§ 14, 1).

Sect. 9.

## CHARACTER AND VALUE OF THE SEVERAL VOWELS.

Although these signs appear numerous, they do not wholly suffice to indicate the various modifications of the vowel sounds

[^19]in respect to length and shortness, sharpness and extension. It may be observed farther, that the indication of the sound by these signs cannot be called always perfectly appropriate. We therefore give here, for the better understanding of this matter, a short commentary on the character and value of the several vowels, especially in respect to length and shortness; but at the same time their changeableness ( $\$ 25,27$ ) will be noticed in passing.

## I. First Class. A sound.

1. Qamets is always long $a$, but yet it is in its nature of two sorts:
1) The essentially long and unchangeable $a$, for which the Arabic has $\mathrm{N}_{\uparrow}$, as as םp qâm (he stood), written at times are. 2) The prolonged $\bar{a}$ of prosody,* both in the tone-syllable and close before or after it. This sound always comes out of short $a$, and is found in an open syllable (i. e. one ending with a vowel, see $\AA 26,2$ ), e. g. קָׁt, לitik, ריָּ, and also in a closed (i. e. one ending with a consonant), as עיָּלָם. In the closed syllable, however, it can stand only when this has the tone, $\dagger$, עוֹרָ especially frequent before the tone-syllable, as
 vowel becomes, in the former case, short a (Pattach), and in the latter, vocal $\mathbb{S h}^{e} v a$ ( $(27,3$ ), (chakham) ; ?

Under the final letter of a word, only Qamets can stand


2. Pattach, or the shorter $a$, stands properly only in a closed

 the syllable originally closed (

On the union of Pattach with $\aleph(*-)$ see $\S 23,2$ : on $a$ as a helping sound (Pattach furtive), see § 22, 2, b.
3. Seghol ( $\ddot{a}, \check{e}$ ) belongs chiefly to the second class of vowels,

[^20]but now and then, according to its origin, to the first or the third class. It belongs to the first, when it is a modification of $a$ (like German Gast, Güste [comp. Celtic bardh, pl. beirdh]), e.g. אֶּקֶ (ik from wַּק, Although an obtuse sound, it can stand in the tonesyllable, as in the first syllable of $t$ 辟deqq, and even in the gravest tone-syllable at the end of a clause or sentence (in pause).

## II. Second Class. I and E sound.

4. The long $\bar{i}$ is most commonly expressed by the letter " (a fully written Chireq ${ }^{4}-$ ); but even when this is not the case, it makes no essential difference provided the vowel is long by na-
 defectively written Chireq is long, may be best known from the grammatical origin and character of the form, but often also from the character of the syllable ( $\$ 26$ ) or from the position of Methegh ( $£ 16,2$ ) at its side, as in
5. The short Chireq (always written without ${ }^{4}$ ) is specially



 for $\bigcap_{1!}$

The Jewish and the older grammarians call every fully written Chireq Chireq magnum, and every defectively written one, Chireq parcum. In respect to the sound, this is a wrong distinction.
6. The longest $\hat{e}$, Tsere with Yodh ( -- ), comes from the diphthong $a i\urcorner(\S 7,1)$, which also stands for it in Arabic and Syriac, as יֵַיכָּ (palace) in Ar. and Syr. haikal. It is therefore a very long and unchangeable vowel, longer even than ${ }^{-}-$, since it approaches the quantity of a diphthong. This " ${ }^{-\pi}$ is but seldom written defectively (עֵֵֵּי for Is. iii. 8), and then it retains the same value.

At the end of a word ${ }^{n}$ - and ${ }^{n}$ - must be written fully: most rare is

7. The Tsere without Yodh is the long $\dot{e}$ of the second rank, which stands only in and close by the tone-syllable, like the Qamets above in No. 1, 2. Like that, it stands in either an

[^21]open or a closed syllable, the former in the tone-syllable or before

8. The Seghol, so far as it belongs to the second class, is most generally a short obtuse $e$ sound got by shortening the ( - ), 7 from Sh ${ }^{\text {eva }}, \S 10,1$ ), when this is heightened in pronunciation by the

 The Seghol with Yodh ( ${ }^{\square}-\overline{)}$ ) is a long but yet obtuse $\ddot{u}$ ( $\grave{e}$ of the French) formed out of ai, , gen elèna, and hence it belongs rather to the first class.

See more on the rise of Seghol out of other vowels in $\$ 27$, Rem. 1, 2, 4 .

## III. Third Class. U and O somnd.

9. In the third class we find quite the same relation as in the second. In the $u$ sound twe have: 1) the long $\bar{u}$, whether $a$ ) fully written $\ddagger$ Shureq, (answering to the ${ }^{7}$ - of the second class), e.g. (dwelling), or $b$ ) defectively written without Vav - (analogous to the long - of the second class), Qibbuts, namely, that which stands for Shureq, and which might more properly be called
 Shureq, and only an orthographic shortening for the same;
2) The short $\check{u}$, the proper Qibbuts (analogous to the short Chireq), in an unaccented closed syllable, and especially in a


For the latter the LXX put o, e. g. follows that this is the true pronunciation, though they also express Chireq by $\varepsilon$. Fqually incorrect was the former custom of giving to both sorts of Qibluts the sound $\bar{u}$.

Sornetimes also the short $u$.in a sharpened syllable is expressed by ${ }^{4}$, e. g.
10. The $O$ sound stands in the same relation to $U$, as $E$ to $\boldsymbol{I}$ in the second class. It has four gradations: 1) the longest $\hat{\delta}$, got from the diphthong $a u(\S 7,1)$, and mostly written in full $i$ (Cholem plenum), as (whip), Arab. saut,
 from רixi;
2) The long $\hat{o}$, which has sprung from an original $a$ [comp. Germ. alt = Eng. old], usually written fully in a tone-syllable and defectively in a toneless one, as Arab. and Chald. qatel,

3) The tone-long $\delta$, which is a lengthening of short $o$ or $u$ by the tone, and which becomes short again on its removal, as
 instance it is shortened to vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{\circ} \mathrm{va}$, yiqtelu). In this case the Cholem is fully written only by way of exception.
4) The Qamets chatuph ( - ), always short and in the same relation to Cholem as the Seghol of the second class to the Tsere, -לָּ $k \lesssim \delta l$, ם Qamets see below in this section.
11. The Seghol belongs here also, so far as it arises out of $u$


On the half-vowels see the next section.
12. In the following table we give a scale of the vowel-sounds in each of the three classes, with respect to their quantity, from the greatest length to the utmost shortness. The table does not indeed suffice to exhibit all vowel transitions which occur in the language, but yet it furnishes a view of those in more frequent use.

First Class. A. $\quad$ Second Class. I and E. $\mid$ Third Class. U and $O$.

- longest a (Arabic $\stackrel{-}{-}$
"-.ê diphthongal (from io diphthongal (from ai).
$\rightarrow$ - $\grave{e}$ (from $a i$ ). ior $-\hat{0}$ changed from

$$
\text { - or - long } \bar{i}
$$

- tone-lengthened $\bar{e}$ (from short $a$ or - ) in and by the tone-syllable.
- short $\bar{a}$.
- obtuse $\boldsymbol{a}$.

Greatest shortening to $\tau^{a}$ or $\tau^{e}$ in an open, and to $-i$ in a closed sylla-
(from -i or - obtuse $e$ )
in and immediately before the tone-syllable.
— short $\bar{i}$.

- obtuse $e$.

Greatest shortening to $-\ddot{a}$ or $-_{i}^{e}$ in an open syl- $-{ }^{0}$ or $\mathcal{D}^{e}$ in an open syllable, besides the $-i$ or lable, besides the short -$\underset{\sim}{-}$ in the closed. $\quad$ or $-\delta$ in the closed. ble.

## ON THE DISTINCTION OF QAMETS AND QAMETS-CHATUPH.*

As an instance of the inappropriateness of the vowel indication we may notice the fact, that $\bar{a}$ (Qamets) and $\varnothing$ (Qamets-

[^22]chatuph) are both indicated by the same sign ( $\tau$ ), e.g. p qam, - כָּל køl.* For distinguishing between them let the beginner, who does not yet know the grammatical derivation of the words he has to read (for this knowledge is the surest guide), follow these two rules:

1. The sign ( $\tau$ ) is $\delta$ in a closed syllable which has not the tone [or accent]; for such a syllable cannot have a long vowel $(\$ 26,3)$. Examples of various sorts are :-
 (wisdom), ה্ָָㅜ zökh-ra; with a Methegh, on the contrary, the ( $\tau$ ) is $\bar{a}$, and closes the syllable, but then the following Sheva is a half-vowel (vocal

b) When Daghesh forte follows, as ם בָּ $n i$ (pity me); also stands by every vowel in the ante-penultima).
c) When Maqqeph follows ( $(16,1$ ), as $\square$ 就 men).
d) When the unaccented closed syllable is final, as Ep (and he stood up).-There are some cases where $a$ in the final syllable loses its tone by Maqqeph ( $\$ 16,1$ ) and yet remains unchanged, e. g.
 cases. $\dagger$
 according to $\S 26,5$.
2. The sign ( $\uparrow$ ) as short $\gamma$ in an open syllable is far less frequent, and belongs to the exceptions in $\$ 26,3$. It occurs

 (thy deed) ; c) in two anomalous words, where it stands merely for ( r ), which are found so even in manuscripts, viz. $q \check{\text {-dhashim (sanctuaries) and }}$ )

In these cases $(\tau)$ is followed by Methegh, although it is $\check{\delta}$, since Methegh always stands in the second syllable before the tone. The exceptions that occur can be determined only by the grammatical derivation, as

[^23]Th크̃ in the ship (read: bani) 1 Kings ix. 27, with the article included;
 the article.

Sect. 10.

## OF THE HALF-VOWELS AND THE SYLLABLE-DIVIDER ( $\mathrm{SH}^{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{VA}$ ).

1. Besides the full vowels, of which $\$ 9$ chiefly treats, the Hebrew has also a series of very slight vowel-sounds, which may be called half-vowels.* We may regard them in general as extreme shortenings, perhaps mere traces, of fuller and distincter vowel-sounds in an earlier period of the language. To them belongs the sign - , which indicates the shortest, slightest, and most indistinct half-vowel, something like an obscure half $\check{e}$. It is called $S h^{e} v a, \dagger$ and also simple $S h^{e} v a$ to distinguish it from the composite (see below No. 2), and vocal Shiva (Shiva mobile) to distinguish it from the silent ( $S h^{e}$ va quiescens), which is merely a divider of syllables (see below No. 3). This last can occur only under a consonant closing the syllable, and is thus distinguished from the vocal Shiva, whose place is under a consonant beginning the syllable, whether $a$ ) at the beginning of the word, as
 $q \hat{0}-t^{c} l \bar{u}$, ,

 rogative $\underset{\sim}{2}$ makes a syllable by itself), $m a-l^{c} / i h \hat{e}$. In the last examples the $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ sound is specially slight, in consequence of a very short syllable preceding.

The sound $\bar{e}$ may be regarded as representing vocal $S h^{e} v a$, although it is certain that it often accorded in sound with other vowels. The LXX
 Exumovid, but very often they give it a sound to accord with the


[^24]lar account of the pronunciation of $\mathrm{Sh}^{\curvearrowright} \mathrm{va}$ is given also by the Jewish grammarians of the middle ages.*

How the $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va sound springs from the slight or hasty utterance of a stronger vowel, we may see in No. 2) from barakha, as this word also sounds in Arabic. This language has regularly for vocal $S h^{e} v a$ an ordinary short vowel.

The vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ is too weak to stand in a closed syllable; but yet it can with the consonant before it form a hasty open syllable, as appears from the use of Methegh (see $\S 16,2$ ), and also from the fact, that it can become an accented - , as (
2. With the simple vocal $S h^{e} v a$ is connected the so-called composite $S h^{c} v a$ or Chateph (rapid), i. e. a $S h^{e} v a$ attended by a short vowel to indicate that we should sound it as a half $\check{a}$, $\check{e}$, or $\varnothing$. We have, answering to the three principal vowel-sounds ( $\$ 7,1$ ), the following three :
(::) Chateph-Pattach, as in hinh chamor (ass).
(::) Chateph-Seghol, as in ${ }^{\text {e }}$ mor (to say).

The Chatephs, at least the two former, stand chiefly under the four gutturals ( $£ 22,3$ ), the utterance of which naturally causes the annexed half-vowel to be more distinctly sounded.

Rem. Only ( $-:$ ) and ( $\mathrm{r}:$ ) occur under letters which are not gutturals.
The Chateph-Pattach stands for simple vocal $S^{e} h^{e} v a$, but without any fixed law, especially $a$ ) under a doubled letter, since the doubling causes a distincter utterance of the vocal $S^{e}$ va, sometimes also where the sign of doubling has fallen away, xvi. $16 ; b$ ) after a long vowel, e. g. בin (gold of), but


The Chateph-Qamets is less connected with the gutturals than the first two, and stands for simple vocal $S h^{e} v a$ when an $O$-sound was originally in the syllable, and requires to be partly preserved, e.g. .
 his pate from קָּpr. It is used also, like ( $-:$ ), when Daghesh forte has fallen away,
 following guttural and the preceding $U$-sound.
3. The sign of the simple $S h^{e} v a(-)$ serves also as a mere syllable-divider, without expressing any sound, and therefore

[^25]called in this case silent $S h^{e} v a\left(S h^{e} v a\right.$ quiescens), answering to the Arabic Djesm. It stands in the midst of a word under every consonant that closes a syllable; at the end of words, on the other hand, it is omitted, except in final T, e. g. . in the less frequent case where a word ends with two conso-



Yet in the last examples $S h^{e} v a$ under the last leter might rather pass for rocal, since it is pretty clear that a final vowel has been shortened, e. g. ตุ alle from The Arabic actually has a short vowel in the analogous forms. In borrowed from the Indian, this is less clear. קְשְ P (truth) Prov. xxii. 21, seems to sound qosht.

## Sect. 11.

## SIGNS WHICH AFFECT THE READING OF CONSONANTS.

In intimate connexion with the vowel points stand the reading-signs, which were probably adopted at the same time. Besides the diacritic point of $\uplus$ and $\dot{\mathscr{y}}$, a point is used in a letter in order to show that it has a stronger sound or is even doubled; and on the contrary a small horizontal stroke over a letter, as a sign that it has not the strong sound. The use of the point in the letter is threefold: a) as Daghesh forte or sign of doubling ; b) as Daghesh lene or sign of hardening ; c) as Mappiq, a sign that the vowel-letter ( 87,2 ), especially the $\pi$ at the end of a word, has the sound of a consonant. The stroke over a letter, Raphe, is scarcely ever used in the printed text.

## Sect. 12.

## OF DAGHESH IN GENERAL, AND DAGHESH FORTE IN PARTICULAR.

1. Daghesh, a point written in the bosom $\dagger$ of a consonant, is employed for two purposes: a) to indicate the doubling of the

[^26]letter (Daghesh forte), e. g. .ẹ? q̌̌t-tēl ; b) the hardening of the aspirates, i. e. the removal of the aspiration (Daghesh lene).

The root דגט, from which הָּשׂ is derived, in Syriac signifies to thrust through, to bore through (with a sharp iron). Hence the word Daghesh is commonly supposed to mean, with reference to its figure merely, a prick, a point. But the names of all similar signs are expressive of their grammatical power; and in this case, the name of the sign refers both to its figure and its use. In grammatical language דגד meanh, ${ }^{1}$ ) acuere literam, to sharpen the letter by doubling it; 2) to harden the letter by taking away its aspiration. Accordingly widֶ means sharp and hard, i. e. sign of sharpening or hardening (like Mappiq, $\operatorname{pַgroferens,~i.~e.~signum~pro-~}$ lationis), and it was expressed in writing by a mere prick of the stylus ( punctum). In a manner somewhat analogous, letters and words are represented, in the criticism of a text, as expunged (ex-puncta) by a point or pointed instrument (obeliscus) affixed to them. The opposite of Daghesh
 to a hard pronunciation of various kinds; appears from § 22,4, Rem. 1 .
2. Its use as Daghesh forte, i. e. for doubling a letter, is of chief importance; (compare the Sicilicus of the ancient Latins, e. g. Lucuìus for Lucullus, and in German the stroke over $m$ and $n$.) It is wanting in the unpointed text, like the vowel and other signs.

For further particulars respecting its uses and varieties, see § 20.

## Sect. 13.

## DAGHESH LENE.

1. Daghesh lene, the sign of hardening, belongs only to the aspirates (literce aspirata) aspiration, and restores their original slender or pure sounds (lit-
 but
2. Daghesh lene, as is shown in $\S 21$, stands only at the beginning of words and syllables. It is thus easily distinguished from Daghesh forte, since in these cases the doubling of a letter is impossible. Thus the Daghesh is forte in רַבִּים rabbim, but

3. Daghesh forte in an aspirate not only doubles it, but takes away its aspiration, thus serving at once for both forte and lene, as stechen and stecken, wachen and wecken).

This is accounted for by the difficulty of doubling an aspirated letter in pronunciation. In confirmation of this rule we may refer to certain Oriental words, which, in the earliest times, passed over into the Greek Jan-


The doubling of a letter does not occur in Syriac, at least in the western dialects. Where it would be required, however, according to etymology and analogy, the aspiration at least is removed: thus $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{N}}$ N in Syriac is read apeq, for appeq.

## SEct. 14.

## MAPPIQ AND RAPHE.

1. Mappiq, like Daghesh, to which it is analogous, is a point
 (litera quiescibiles), and shows that they are to be sounded with their full consonant power, instead of serving as vowels.
 having its full sound), 位坔 ar-tsah (her land), in distinction


Without doubt such a $n$ was uttered with stronger aspiration, like the Arab. He at the end of the syllable, or like $h$ in the German Schuh, which in common life is pronounced Schuch. The use of it in and under $x, \eta, \eta$, is confined to manuscripts, e. g. Yis (goy), ${ }^{4}$ (qav).

The name signifies producens, and indicates that the sound of the letter should be clearly expressed. The same sign was selected for this and for Daghesh, because the design was analogous, viz. to indicate the strong sound of the letter. Hence also Raphe is the opposite of both.
 site of both Daghesh and Mappiq, especially of Daghesh lene. In exact manuscripts an aspirate has generally either Daghesh lene or Raphe, e. g. the Bible it is used only when the absence of Daghesh or Mappiq
 16 , and v. 28 (where Daghesh lene is absent), Mappiq in Job xxxi. 22.

## SECT. 15.

## OF THE ACCENTS.

1. The design of the accents in general is, to show the rhythmical members of the verses in the Old Testament text. But as such the use is two-fold, viz. a) to mark the tone-syllable in each word; b) to show the logical relation of each word to the
whole sentence. In the former respect they serve as signs of the tone, in the latter as signs of interpunction.

By the Jews, moreover, they are regarded as signs of cantillation, and are used as such in the recitation of the Scriptures in the Synagogues. This use of them also is connected with their general rhythmical design.
2. As signs for the tone, they are all perfectly equivalent, for there is but one kind of accent in Hebrew. In most words the tone is on the last syllable, more seldom on the penultima. In the first case the word is called mı̆l-rü (מִלְ Chald., from below), e. g.
防 the chief tone never stands; but yet we often find there a secondary one, or by-tone, which is indicated by the Methegh ( $\S 16,2)$.
3. The use of the accents as signs of interpunction is somewhat complicated, as they serve not merely to separate the members of a sentence, like our period, colon, and comma, but also as marks of connexion. Hence they form two classes, Distinctives (Domini) and Conjunctives (Servi). Some are, moreover, peculiar to the poetical books* (Job, Psalms, and Proverbs), which have a stricter rhythm.

The following is a list of them according to their value as signs of interpunction.

## A. Distinctives (Domini).

I. Greatest Distinctives (Imperatores), which may be compared with our period and colon. 1. ( - ) Silllŭq (end), only at the end of the verse and always united with (:) Soph-pūsuq,
 spiration), generally in the middle of the verse. 3. $(\underset{-}{\prime}) M e ̈ r k \bar{a}$ with Măhpăkh.*
II. Great Distinctives (Reges): 4. ( - ) Sěghōltū†t: 5. $\left.{ }^{( }-\right)$ Züqēph-qātōn: 6. ( ${ }^{(-)}$) Zäqēph-gādhōl: 7. (-) Tǐ̀phchā.
 10. ( - ) Păshtā††: 11. (-) Yěthībh $\dagger:$ 12. (-) Těbhīr: 13. ( ${ }^{( }$) Shălshélěth*: 14. (-) Tìphchū initiale $\dagger$.
IV. Smallest (Comites) : 15. $\stackrel{\bullet}{-}$ ) Pāzēr: 16. (ٌ̈) Qărnê-
 Double-Gü̈rěsh: 20. (1) Psīq, between the words.

[^27]
## B. Conjunctives (Servi).

21. (-) Mërkā: 22. (-)' Münäch: 23. (-) Double-Mẽrkā: 24. (-) Măhpŭkh: 25. (-) Qŭdhmā: 26. (-) Dărgā: 27. (-)
 Mẽrkā with Zürqä**: 31. (-ت) Măhpăkh with Zărqü.*

## REMARKS ON THE ACCEN'SS.

## I. As Signs of the Tone.

1. As in Greek (comp. $\varepsilon i \mu i$ and $\varepsilon \tilde{\tau} \mu \iota$ ), words which are written wich the same consonants and vowel-signs are often distinguished by the accent,
 -品qamá (standing up, fem.) [Compare in English compáct and cómpact].
2. As a rule the accents stand on the tone-syllable, and properly on its initial consonant. Some, however, stand only on the first letter of a word (prepositive), others only on the last letter (postpositive). The former are designated in the table by $\dagger$, the latter by $\dagger \dagger$. These do not, therefore, clearly indicate the tone-syllable, which must be known some other way. Those marked with an asterisk are used only in the poetical books.
3. The place of the accent, when it is not on the final syllable, is indi-


## II. As Signs of Interpunction.

4. In respect to this use of the accents, every verse is regarded as a period, which closes with Silluq,* or in the figurative language of the grammarians, as a realm (ditio), which is governed by the great Distinctive at the end (Imperator). According as the verse is long or short, i. e. as the empire is large or small, varies the number of Domini of different grades, which form the larger and smaller divisions.
5. Conjunctives (Servi) unite only such words as are closely connected in sense, as a noun with an adjective, or with another noun in the genitive, \&c. But two conjunctives cannot be employed together. If the sense requires that several words should be connected, it is done by Maqqeph (§ 16, 1).
6. In very short verses few conjunctives are used, and sometimes none; a small distinctive, in the vicinity of a greater, having a connective power (servit domino majori). In very long verses, on the contrary, conjunctives are used for the smaller distinctives (fiunt legati dominorum).
7. The choice of the conjunctive or distinctive depends on subtile laws of consecution, with which the learner need not trouble himself at present. It is sufficient for him to know the greater distinctives, which answer to

[^28]our period, colon, and comma, though they often stand where a half comma is scarcely admissible. They are most important in the poetical books for dividing a verse into its members.

Sect. 16.

## MAQQEPH AND METHEGH.

These are both closely connected with the accents.

1. Maqqeph (מַּper binder) is a small horizontal stroke between two words, which thus become so united that, in respect to tone and interpunction, they are regarded as one, and have but one accent. Two, three, and four words may be united in this way, e.g.

 are almost always thus connected. But a longer word may also be joined

 principle, that two conjunctive accents cannot be written in succession. When the sense requires such a connexion, it is expressed by Maqqeph.
2. Methegh (מֶֶa a bridle), a small perpendicular line on the left of a vowel, forms a kind of check upon the influence of the accents as marking the tone-syllable, and shows that the vowel, though not accented, should not be hastily passed over in pronunciation. It stands, therefore, regularly by the vowel of the antepenultima when the last syllable has the tone, whether that vowel be long, as ロรֶּתn mottekhem. But this rule is to be understood according to the view, which regards the half-vowels (simple $S h^{e}$ va vocal and composite $S h^{e} v a$ ) as forming a syllable ( $\$ 10,1$ and $\ddagger 26$ ); accordingly Methegh stands $a$ ) by the vowel which precedes a

 itself
 while others use this name in general for every Methegh.
N. B. It is of special service to the beginner, as indicating (according to letter $a$ above) the quantity of Qamets and Chireq before a She ra. Thus

penultima, and that the $S h^{e} v a$ is here vocal and forms a syllable; but the ( $r$ ) in an open syllable before (:) must be long ( $\$ 26,3$ ), consequently Qamets not Qamets-chatuph. On the contrary Mivithout Methegh is a dissyllable [zölh-ra], and ( $r$ ) stands in a closed syllable, and is consequently short (Qamets-chatuph). Thus also 5 :n7. (they fear) with Methegh is a trisyllable with a long $i, y \bar{z}-r^{e}-\bar{u}$; but win? (they see) without it, a dissyllable with short $i, y \ddot{z} r-\bar{u}$. See above the rule about Qamets and Qamets-chatuph in § 9 at the end.

Sect. 17.
$Q^{\text {ERI }}$ RI AND K'thibh.
The margin of the Bible exhibits a number of various readings of an early date ( $\S 3,2$ ) called ${ }^{\text {P/ }}$ (to be read), because in the view of the Jewish critics they are to be preferred to the reading of the text called (written). Those critics have therefore attached the vowel signs, appropriate to the marginal reading, to the corresponding word in the text. E.g. in Jer. xlii. 6 the text exhibits text belong to the word in the margin, which is to be pronounced
 supplied, making $\ddagger$ ª̨. A small circle or asterisk over the word in the text always directs to the marginal reading.

Respecting the critical value of the narginal readings, see Gesenius's Gesch. der hebr. Sprache, S. ј0, 75.

## CHAPTER II.

## PECULIARITIES AND CHANGES OF LETTERS; OF SYLLables and THE TONE.

Sect. 18.
In order fully to comprehend the changes which words undergo in their various inflexions, it is necessary first to survey the general laws on which they depend. These general laws are founded partly on the peculiarities of certain letters and classes of letters, considered indivtlually or as combined in syllables, and partly on certain usages of the language in reference to syllables and the tone.

## Sect. 19.

## CHANGES OF CONSONANTS.

The changes occasioned among consonants by the formation of words, inflexion, euphony, or certain influences connected with the history of the language, are commutation, assimilation, rejection and addition, transposition.

1. Commutation takes place most naturally among letters which are pronounced similarly, and by the aid of the same or-

 to close ; מָּט, to escape. In process of time, and as the language approximated to the Aramæan, hard and rough sounds
 for $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{F} \\ \mathrm{W} \\ \text { to laugh ; for the sibilants were substituted the corre- }\end{aligned}$


This interchange of consonants affects the original forms of words more than it does their grammatical inflexion; the consideration of it, therefore, belongs properly to the lexicon.* Examples occur, however, in the grammatical inflexion of words; viz. the interchange $a$ ) of $\Omega$ and $\because$ in Hithpaël ( $\$ 53), b$ ) of 9 and $\urcorner$ in verbs $P e$ Yodh ( $£ 68$ ), as
2. Assimilation uşually takes place when one consonant standing before another, without an intervening vowel, would occasion a harshness in pronunciation, as illustris for inlustris; diffusus for disfusus; $\sigma \nu \lambda \lambda \alpha \mu \beta \propto \iota \nu \omega$ for $\sigma v \nu \lambda \propto \mu \beta \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$. In Hebrew this occurs,
a) most frequently with a before most other consonants, especially

 als 2 is commonly retained, as

b) less frequently and only in certain cases, with ל, 7, ת. E.g.

In all these cases, the assimilation is expressed by a Daghesh forte in the following letter. In a final consonant, however, as it cannot be doubled ( $£ 20,3, a$ ), Daghesh is not written, e. g.

[^29]
ถל. Comp. $\tau \nu \psi \bar{a} g$ for $\tau v \psi \alpha \nu \varsigma$.
In the last cases the assimilated letter has not Sherva, but the helping $^{e}$ vowel Seghol ( $\$ 28,4$ ), which, however, does not render the assimilation impracticable.

In the way of assimilation we occasionally find a second weaker sound swallowed up by the stronger one before it; e. g. .


3. The rejection or falling away of a consonant easily happens in the case of the feebly uttered vowel-letters $\mathbb{\aleph}, \pi, 7$,$\urcorner ,$ and also of the liquids. It happens,
a) at the beginning of a word (apheresis), when such a feeble consonant has no full vowel, and its sound is easily lost upon
 for
b) in the midst of a word (contraction), when such a feeble consonant is preceded by a $S^{e}{ }^{e} v a$, e.g. .

 sons, before the genitive
Bolder changes were made in the infancy of the language, particularly in casting away consonants at the end of a word; thus from formed 7 ; from change of the feminine ending $n-a t h$ to $\pi-a$ (see § 44,1 , and $\S 79$ ).
4. In other cases a harshness in pronunciation is prevented by the addition of $\mathbf{*}$ (Aleph prostheticum) with its vowel at the


5. Transposition, in grammar, seldom occurs. An example of it is ( for than ths. Cases are more frequent in the province of the lexi-
 chiefly confined, however, to the sibilants and liquids.

Consonants also, especially the weaker, may at the end of a syllable be sofiened to vowels, like $\varepsilon$ ís from $\varepsilon v \Omega$, chevaux from cheval [comp. Eng. old
 Kֵּנֶ (where the Seghol is merely a helping vowel, see above No. 2).*

[^30]Sect. 20.

## DOUBLING OF CONSONANTS.

1. The doubling of a letter by Daghesh forte takes place, and is essential, i. e. necessary to the form of the word (Daghesh essential),
a) when the same letter is to be written twice in succession,
 we have given ; for
b) in cases of assimilation ( 19,2 ), as for these instances it is called Daghesh compensative.
c) when the doubling of a letter originally single is characteristic
 has taught (Daghesh characteristic).
The double consonant is actually and necessarily written twice, whenever a vowel sound, even the shortest (a vocal Sheva) comes between.


 two consonants have come to stand together, but properly belong to two
 4 are suffixes; $d$ ) when the form has come from another which has a long



2. A consonant is sometimes doubled merely for the sake of euphony. The use of Daghesh in such cases (Daghesh euphonic) is only occasional, as being less essential to the forms of words. It is employed,
a) when two words, of which the first ends in a vowel, are more closely united in pronunciation by doubling the initial conso-

 part!) Gen. xix. 14 ; 㒸 Deut. xxvii. 7.*
In some instances words thus united are contracted into one,
 iii. 15 .
[^31]Analogous to the above usage is the Neapolitan le llagrime for le lagrime, and (including the union of the two words in one) the Latin reddo for $r e-d o$, and the Italian alla for a la, della for de la.
b) when the final consonant of a closed syllable, preceded by a short vowel, is doubled in order to sharpen the syllable still more, e. g. צִּבְּב for grapes, Deut. xxxii. 32. Compare Gen. xlix. 10, Ex. ii. 3, Is. lvii. 6, lviii. 3, Job xvii. 2, 1 Sam, xxviii. 10, Ps. xlv. 10. Examples of this, however, are comparatively rare, and without any regard to uniformity.
Compare the following forms as found in very ancient Greek inscrip-
 p. 42), and in German anndere, unnsere (for andere, unsere) as written in the time of Luther.
c) when it is inserted in the final tone-syllable of a sentence ( $\$ 29$, 4), in order that it may furnish a more firm support for the
 they waited, Job xxix. 21, Is. xxxiii. 12.
3. The Hebrews omitted, however, the doubling of a letter by Daghesh forte, in many cases where the analogy of the forms required it; viz.
a) always at the end of a word, because there the syllable did not admit of sharpening. Thus the syllable all would be pronounced, not as in German with a sliarpened tone, ${ }^{*}$ but like the English all, call, small. Instead, therefore, of doubling $\dagger$ the consonant, they often lengthened the preceding

 xvi. 33.
b) often at the end of a syllable, in the body of a word (where the doubling of a letter is less audible, as in Greek cỉ $\lambda \tau 0$ Ho-

In these cases it may be assumed as a rule, that the Daghesh remains in the letter with $S_{h}^{e} v a$ (which is then vocal, $\$ 10,1$ ), and is never left out of the aspirates, because it materially affects their sound, e. g. אֲכַּפְּרָ
 .

[^32]in Piel，as


In some cases a vowel or half－vowel was inserted to render the dou－
亿חָּ
c）In the gutturals $(\$ 22,1)$ ．

Rem．In the later books we sometimes find Daghesh omitted，and then compensation made by lengthening the preceding vowel（comp．mèle for mille），as ing－sledges for |  |
| :---: |
| nạา |
| in， |
| 1 | Chron．xxi． 23.

Sect． 21.

## ASPIRATION AND THE REMOVAL OF IT BY DAGHESH LENE．

The pure hard sound of the six aspirates（ $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ פコンココ） with Daghesh lene inserted，is to be regarded，agreeably to the analogy which languages generally exhibit in this respect，as their original pronunciation，from which gradually arose the softer and weaker aspirated sound（ $¢ 6,3$ and $\S 13$ ）．＊The origi－ nal lard pronunciation maintained itself in greatest purity， when it was the initial sound，and after a consonant ；but when it followed a vowel－sound，or stood between two vowels，it was softened by partaking of the aspiration with which a vowel is uttered．Hence the aspirates take Daghesh lene ：

1．At the beginning of words，when the preceding word ends
 éts $p^{e} r \bar{i}$（fruit tree）；or at the beginning of a chapter or verse， or even of a minor division of a verse（consequently after a dis－ tinctive accent，§ 15，3），e．g．דְּרָאשִיח in the beginning，Gen． i．1．וַיְהִי כַּצֵשֶׁר it happened，when，Judges xi． 5 ；on the con－ trary

Also a diphthong（ $\$ 8,5$ ）so called，is here treated as ending in a con－ sonant，e．g．בְּ ְָ Judges v． 15.
2．In the middle and at the end of words after silent $S h^{c} v a$ ， i．e．at the beginning of a syllable，and in immediate connexion with a preceding vowelless consonant，e．g． killed，יִּבְבַּר he is heavy，יֵּשְׁ he drinks．On the contrary，after

[^33]vocal Sh ${ }^{e}$ va they take the soft pronunciation, e. g.


Exceptions to No. 2 are:
a) Forms which are made, by the addition or omission of letters, immediately from other forms in which the aspirates had their soft sound.


 pronunciation of the word, to which the ear had become accustomed, was retained.*
b) The form on account of the preceding vowel. But the original form was $\prod_{ְ} \prod_{2}$ and the relation of $\pi$, notwithstanding the slight vowel-sound thrown in before it, was regarded as unchanged. Comp. § $28,4$.
 because vocal $S h^{e} v a$ is before it.
d) Also the tone appears at times to affect the division of a word into syllables, and consequently the sound of the aspirates, thus riop
 Ez. xl. 43.
e) Finally, certain classes of forms are to be noticed, e. g. nimp

That the hard or soft pronunciation of these letters did not affect the signification of words, affords no reason to doubt that such a distinction


Sect. 22.

## PECULIARITIES OF THE GUTTURALS.

The four gutturals $\AA, \pi, \Pi, y$, have certain properties in common, which result from their peculiar pronunciation; yet $\mathcal{*}$ and $y$, having a softer sound than $\bar{i}$ and $\pi$, differ from them in several respects.

1. The gutturals cannot be doubled in pronunciation, and therefore exclude Daghesh forte. To our organs also there is difficulty in doubling an aspiration. But the syllable preceding the letter which omits Daghesh appears longert in consequence of the omission ; hence its vowel is commonly lengthened, especially before the fecbler letters's and $\ddagger$, e.g. g.
 lowed a sharpening of the syllable, though orthography excluded
[^34]Dagh. $f$. (as in German the ch in sicher, machen, has the sharp pronunciation without being written double), and hence these letters almost universally retain before them the short vowel, e.g.


As these last forms are treated as though the guttural were doubled, the grammarians not inappropriately speak of them as having a Daghesh forte implicitum, occultum, or delitescens; e. g. אַחִּ for brothers ;

2. They are accustomed to take a short A sound before them, because this vowel stands organically in close affinity to the gutturals. Hence,
a) Before a guttural, Pattach is used instead of any other short vowel, as $\check{\imath}$, e (Chireq parvum, Seghol), and even for the rhythmically long $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{o}$ (Tsere and Cholem); e. g. זָרֶע
 yet more decisive when the form with Pattach was the original one, or was used in common with another. Thus in the Imp. and Fut. Kal of verbs ; שְּ
 tach in the first syllable is the original vowel ; بיחמּד
b) But a strong and unchangeable vowel, as $\mathfrak{i}, 9,4,(\S 25,1)$, and in many cases Tsere, was retained. Between it and the guttural, however, there was involuntarily uttered a hasty $\breve{a}$ (Pattach furtive), which was written under the guttural. This is found only in final syllables and never under $x$.


For the same reason the Swiss pronounces $i c h$ as $i^{a} c h$, and the Arabian משיחm mesieh, though neither writes the supplied vowel. [Analogous to to this is our use of a furtive e before $r$ after long $\bar{e}, \bar{z}, \bar{u}$, and the diphthong ou; e. g. here (sounded hēer), fire. ( $f_{\hat{z}}{ }^{e} r$ ), pure ( $p \bar{u}^{e} r$ ), and our (ouer).]

The Pattach furtive falls away when the word receives an accession
 new syllable.

The LXX write $\varepsilon$ instead of Pattach furtive, as $\operatorname{Mi} \boldsymbol{N} \omega \bar{\varepsilon}$.
Rem. 1. The guttural sometimes exerts an influence on the following vowel. But the examples of this usage are few, and are rather to be regarded as exceptions than as establishing a general rule, e.g. ר葠; for sible without the influence of the guttural, as in the Imp. and Fut. of verbs.
e．g．Pצiti，Peltu．If，however，another，vowel serves at all to characterize the form，it is retained，as 厄חֵּ

2．Seghol is used instead of Pattach both before and under the guttural，
 these forms would have Chireq in place of Seghol．

When the syllable is sharpened by Daghesh，the more slender and
 when the character of the syllable is changed by the falling away of Da－ ghesh，the Seghol，which is required by the guttural，returns，e．g．信苓， const．state $\mathfrak{\square}$
3．Instead of simple Sheva vocal，the gutturals take a com－ posite $S h^{e} v a(\$ 10,2)$ ，e．g． the most common use of the composite $\mathrm{Sh}^{\ominus}$ vas．

4．When a guttural stands at the end of a（closed）syllable，in the midst of a word，and has under it the syllable－divider（silent She $v a, \S 10,3$ ），then the division of syllables often takes place as usual，especially when that syllable has the tone，e．g．${\underset{T}{c}}^{\circ}$ （thou hast sent）．But when the syllable stands before the tone， there is usually a softening of the sound by giving to the guttu－ ral a slight vowel（one of the composite $S h^{e} v a s$ ），which has the same sound as the full vowel preceding，as（also בivinin）：
 changed into the short vowel with which it is compounded， whenever the following consonant loses its full vowel in conse－ quence of an increase at the end of the word，e． g ， $y \varnothing$－бbhed $d h \bar{u}$（from

Rem．1．Simple $S h^{e} v a$ under the gutturals，the Grammarians call hard
 observations on verbs with gutturals（ $\$ \$$ 61－64）．

2．Respecting the choice between the three composite She vas it may be remarked，that
 Min．But when a word receives an accession at the end，or loses the tone，$x$ also takes（－：），as iii．11．Comp．§ 27，Rem． 5.
b）In the middle of a word，the choice of a composite Sh $^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ is regulated by the vowel（and its class）which another word of the same form，but without a guttural，would take before the $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ ；as Pret．Hiph．（according


For some further vowel changes in connexion with gutturals，see $\S 27$ ， Rem． 2.
5．The $\urcorner$ ，which the Hebrew uttered also as a guttural（ 96 ，

2,1 ), shares with the other gutturals only the characteristics mentioned above in No. 1, and a part of thọse given in No. 2: viz.
a) The exclusion of Daghesh forte ; in which case the vowel be-

b) The use of Pattach* before it in preference to the other short vowels, though this is not so general as in the case of the
 for ond $^{\circ}$ turn back.
Unfrequent exceptions to the principle given under letter $a$ are mör-rā, Prov. xiv. 10; © standing doubled (also in Arabic it admits of doubling, and the LXX write


## Sect. 23.

## OF THE FEEBLENESS OF THE BREATHINGS ※ AND $n$.

1. The $\approx$, a light and scarcely audible breathing in the throat. regularly loses its feeble power as a consonant (it quiesces), whenever it stands without a vowel at the end of a syllable. It then serves merely to prolong the preceding vowel (like the German $h$ in sah), as מָָׁ he has found,
 after all vowels ; bat in this situation short vowels with few ex-

2. On the contrary $\$$ generally retains its power as a consonant and guttural in all cases where it begins a word or sylla-
 Yet even in this position it sometimes loses its consonant sound, when it follows a short vowel or a half-vowel ( vocal $\left.S h^{e} v a\right)$ in the middle of a word: for then the vowel under $\mathbb{N}$ is either shifted back so as to be united with the vowel before it into a
 changed to $\hat{o}$ ) for


[^35]Sometimes there is a still greater change in the word, as



3. Instead of the $\mathbb{N}$ thus quiescing in Cholem, Tsere, and Chireq, we often find written, according to the nature of the

 comp. it for $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ ל (not) 1 Sam. ii. 16 Kethibh; ; at the end of a word $^{\text {e }}$

4. Finally, such an si sometimes falls altogether away, e. g.

 2 Kings xix. 25, for תincien Is. xxxvii. 26.

Rem. 1. In Aramæan the $x$ becomes a vowel much more readily than in Hebrew; but in Arabic, on the contrary, its power as a consonant is much firmer. According to Arabic orthography $\mathbb{N}$ serves also to indicate the lengthened $a$; but in Hebrew the examples are very rare, in which it is strictly a vowel-letter for the long $A$-sound, as ENP Hos. x. 14, for the usual $\mathrm{EP}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (he stood up). Hebrew orthography generally omits, in this case, the prolonging letter ( $\S 8,3$ ).
2. In Syriac $x$ even at the beginning of words cannot be spoken with a half-vowel (cocal $S h^{e} v a$ ), but always receives a full vowel, usually $\boldsymbol{E}$, as \} $S h^{e} v a$ it recejves, in many words, the corresponding long vowel, as girclle for
3. We may call it an Arabism, or a mode of writing common in Arabic, when at the end of a word an $\mathbb{N}$ (without any sound) is added to a (not
 (they are villing), Is. xxviii. 12. Similar are א"p. Tpo "p. pure, wh for
 Rem, 6.
5. The $\boldsymbol{i}$ is stronger and firmer than $\mathbb{N}$, and scarcely ever loses its aspiration (or quiesces) in the middle of a word ;* also at the end it may remain a consonant, and then it takes Mappiq $(\$ 14,1)$. Yet at times the consonant sound of the $-\cdots$ at the end of a word is given up, and $M$ (without Mappiq, or with Raphe

[^36]7) then remains only as representative of the final vowel, e. g.
 At the beginning of a syllable the $\pi$ often disappears and is
 (in the land) for of contraction, the half-vowel ${ }^{\circ}(-)$ before $\pi$ is displaced by the full vowel under it. In other cases, however, the vowel under $\pi$ is displaced by the one before it, as $\bar{T}$ (in them), from or both are blended into a diphthong, as סוסטוֹ (also סוֹה) from


Rem. According to this, the so called quiescent $n$ at the end of a word stands, sometimes, in the place of the consonant i. But usually it serves quite another purpose, namely, to represent final $\bar{a}$, as also $\delta, \bar{c}$, and $a$ (Seghol), e. g. צִּ צִּ M, In connexion with $\sigma$ and $\bar{e}$ it is occasionally changed for 9 and 9 ( $\mathbf{i x}$ and in all cases for $x$ according to later Aramæan orthography, particularly in connexion with $\bar{a}$, e. g. گֵּ get), Jer. xxiii. 39, for , \& \&

## Sect. 24.

## 

The ${ }^{4}$ [the sound of which is probably between our $w$ and $v$ ] and the ${ }^{5}$ [our $y$ ] are as consonants so feeble and soft, approaching so near to the corresponding vowel-sounds $u$ and $i$, that they easily flow into these vowels in certain conditions. On this depend, according to the relations of sounds and the character of the grammatical forms, still further changes which require a general notice in this place, but which will also be explained in detail wherever they occur in the inflexions of words. This is especially important for the form and inflexion of the feeble stems, in which a radical $\rceil^{7}$ or ${ }^{5}$ occurs ( $\$ 68, \& c$., $\S 84$, III.-VI.).

1. The cases where 9 and ${ }^{\prime}$ lose their power as consonants and flow into vowel-sounds, are principally only in the middle and end of words, their consonant-sound being nearly always heard at the beginning. These cases are chiefly the following :
a) When 4 or ${ }^{5}$ stands at the end of a syllable, immediately after a vowel. The feeble letter has not strength enough, in this position, to maintain its consonant-sound. Thus

 perly，－liy，hence fom．－liyya），⿻上丨𣥂（made，Job xli．25，for
 geneous vowels，particularly pure $u$ and $i, \eta$ and ${ }^{4}$ constantly quiesce in these cases．But after a heterogeneous vowel they sound as consonants（according to \＆8，5），as quiet，
 $a$,$\urcorner and { }^{\natural}$ mostly form a diphthongal $\hat{\hat{c}}$ and $\hat{e}$ ，see below No． $2, b$ ．
b）Somewhat less frequently when a vocal $S h^{e} v a$ precedes，and
 aip for $\operatorname{aip}$ ．But ${ }^{4}$ and ${ }^{4}$ always quiesce when they stand at the end of a word and are preceded by a $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ ；as

c）Very seldom when the feeble letter has a full vowel both be－ fore and after it ；as por por por prom，Comp．［par－ vum contr．parum］，mihi contr．mî，quum contr．cum．
In Syriac，where these letters flow still more readily into vowel－sounds， 9 is sounded，even at the beginning of words，merely as $i$ ，not as $\eta$ or ？
 Hence may be explained the Syriac usage，examples of which occur also in Hebrew，which transfers the vowel $i$ ，belonging to the feeble letter，to the preceding consonant，which should properly have simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va，e．g．
 xxix． 21.

2．When such a contraction has taken place，the vowel－letter quiesces regularly in a long vowel．Respecting the choice of this vowel，the following rules may be laid down ：
a）When the vowel，which an analogous form without the feeble letter would take，is homogeneous with the vowel－letter，it


b）When a short $a$ stands before ${ }^{4}$ and $\downarrow$ ，there arise diphthongal $\hat{e}$ and $\hat{o}$（according to $\S 7,1$ ）；thus חַיִשיב becomes

c）But when the vowel－sign is heterogeneous，and at the same

[^37]time is an essential characteristic of the form, it controls the feeble letter, and changes it into one which is homogeneous



An original - at the end of words becomes
a) $\pi=$ (for - is never written at the end of a word), when the impure


b) $\pi-$, when the $A$-sound predominates, and is characteristic of the form;


## Sect. 25.

## UNCHANGEABLE VOWELS.

What vowels in Hebrew are firm and unchangeable, can be known, with certainty and completeness, only from the nature of the grammatical forms and from a comparison with the Arabic, in which the vowel system appears purer and more original than in Hebrew. This holds, especially, of the essentially long vowels in distinction from those which are long only rhythmically, i. e. through the influence of the tone and of syllabication, and which liaving arisen out of short vowels readily become short again by a change in the position of the tone and in the division of the syllables. The beginner may be guided by the following specifications:

1. The essentially long and therefore unchangeable vowels of the second and third class, namely, $\bar{i}, \bar{u}, \hat{e}, \hat{o}$, are regularly expressed among the consonants [or in the line] by their vowelletters, $\bar{\imath}$ and $\hat{e}$ by ${ }^{\natural}, \bar{u}$ and $\hat{o}$ by $\bar{\eta}$, with their appropriate vowelsigns, thus ${ }^{4}-\boldsymbol{T}_{1}$ dwelling, ( $\$ 8,4$ ) may in general be regarded as an exception, e. g. מָׁטְ
 contrary case, when now and then a merely rhythmical long

2. The unchangeable $a$ has in Hebrew, as a rule, no repre-

[^38]sentative among the consonants, though in Arabic it has, namely the $£$, which occurs here but very seldom ( $£ 9,1, \S 23,4$, Rem. 1). For ascertaining this case, therefore, there is no guide but a knowledge of the forms, see $\S 83$, Nos. $6,13,28$.

The numerous cases, where the $\boldsymbol{\kappa}$ is connected with a foregoing vowel only by accident, do not belong here, e. g. صָּ מָּא he found, N゙
3. Unchangeable is also a short vowel in a sharpened syllable, followed by Daghesh forte, e. g. בַּ closed syllable, when another of the same kind follows, e. g.

4. So are also the vowels after which a Daghesh forte has been omitted on account of a guttural, according to $\$ 22,1$ (forma dagessanda), e. g. דָהרי־אר for mountains of God; คา

$$
\text { Sect. } 26 .
$$

## OF SYLLABLES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE QUAN-

 TITY OF VOWELS.In order to survey the laws according to which the long and short vowels are chosen or exchanged one for another, it is necessary to learn the theory of the syllable, on which that choice and exchange depend. The syllable may then be viewed with reference, partly to its commencement (its initial sound) as in No. 1; and, partly, to its close (its final sound) as in Nos. 2-7. The latter view is of chief importance.

1. With regard to the commencement of the syllable it is to be observed, that every syllable must begin with a consonant ; and there are no syllables in the language which begin with a vowel. The single exception is (and), in certain cases for 7 ,
 has here the force of a light breathing.
2. With regard to the close of the syllable, it may end
a) With a vowel, and is then called an open or simple syllable,


[^39]b) With a half-vowel or vocal Sh ${ }^{e}$ va, as $p^{e}$ in (פְ $p^{e} r \bar{\imath}$ (fruit),
 half-syllables, see No. 4.
c) With one consonant : a closed or mixed syllable, as the second


Here belongs also the sharpened syllable, as the first in

 treat in particular of the vowels that are used in these various kinds of syllables.
3. The open or simple syllables have, as a rule, a long vow-
 sanctuary, or not, as ally there is a long vowel (Qamets, less frequently Tsere) in an
 ל

Shorl vowels in open syllables occur only in the following cases:-
a) In dissyllabic words formed by means of a helping-vowel $(\S 28,4)$ from monosyllables (Segholates), as ךֶּ
 short, and the word sounds, almost as one syllable. Yet the first vowel is also lengthened, as in 27 nun another form for

c) Before the so-called He local, which has not the tone ( $\$ 88,2$ ), e. g.

In all these cases the short vowel is supported by the chief tone of the word. Elsewhere it has at least the support of Methegh, namely

[^40] will bind, 谓界his deed; and


 this, but under Nu. 6. below.
4. There is also a slighter sort of open syllables, consisting of one consonant and a half-vowel (or vocal $S h^{i} v a, ~ ¢ 10,1,2$ ). They are so short and so unfit to stand by themselves, that they

 The modern grammarians do not regard these as actual syllables, but always reckon them as part of that which immediately follows [thus they regard לְְחִ as forming but one syllable $l^{c} c h i ̃$, and not two $l^{e}$-chij]. The half vowel is certainly not fit to serve as the final sound of a full syllable; and according to the pronumciation handed down to us, this syllable with Sh'va is obviously of a different sort from the open syllable with full vowel (No. 3). But yet that half-vowel is in general but a shortening of an original long vowel, which is commonly still to be found in Arabic; and even the Jewish grammarians, from whom the vowels and accents came, have assigned to the union of a consonant with a halfvowel the value of a syllable, as appears from the use of Methegh (see $\$ 16,2, b$ ). Such syllables may be called half-syllables.
5. The closed syllables, ending with one consonant, have necessarily, when without the tone, short vowels, both at the be-

 he set up, םp

When with the tone, they nay have a long vowel as well as
 Pattach and Seghol have strength enough to stand in such a syllable having the tone. $\dagger$ Examples of long vowels, in the final
 Examples of short vowels,


[^41]6. A peculiar sort of closed syllables are the sharpened, i. e. those which end with the same consonant with which the following syllable begins, as en un un-mī, closed syllables, these have, when without the tone, short vowels, as in the examples just given; when with the tone, either short,


Sharpened syllables are wholly avoided at the end of words, see $\S 20,3$, letter $a$.
7. Closed syllables, ending with two consonants, occur only at the end of words, and have most naturally short vowels, as
 pare $\AA 10,3$. Most commonly this harshness is avoided by the use of a helping vowel ( $(28,4)$.

Rem. In the division into syllables, accordingly, a simple $S h^{e} n a$ after a short vowel belongs to the foregoing syllable and is quiescent, as מרְמָּ mir-ma ; but after a long vowel, to the following, and is vocal ( $\$ 10,1$ ), as
 the following syllable, as $p \bar{o}^{-a} l \hat{0}$, even after a short vowel, as tă- ${ }^{-} m o ̂$,

Sect. 27.

## CHANGES OF VOWELS, ESPECIALLY IN RESPECT TO THEIR QUANTITY.

As to the changes which the vowels undergo by the inflexion of words, we may lay down these fundamental principles,
a) That they generally occur only in the last syllablé and the
last but one, very seldom in the antepenultima, e. g.

b) That they are usually made within the limits of one and the same vowel-class [ $\ddagger 8$ 8]. Thus $\bar{a}$ may be shortened into $\bar{a}$ and $\ddot{u}, \bar{e}$ into $\check{\imath}$ and $\check{e}, \bar{o}$ into $\varnothing$ and $\breve{u}$; and with the same limita-. tion the short vowels may become long. But such a change as turning $a$ into $u$ can never take place.
The most material exception consists in the approximation of the first vowel-class to the second by attenuating Pattach into Chireq and Seghol, see below Rem. 2 and 3. So also in the origin of obtuse Seghol out of vowels belonging to all three classes, see Rem. 4.
The vowels with the changes of which we are here chiefly concerned, are the whole of the short ones and as many of the long as owe their length simply to the tone and rhythm, namely,

Long vowels (by the influence of the tone). Corresponding short vowela

| $\bar{\top} \bar{u}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-\bar{e}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}-\breve{a} \\ -\ddot{a}, \check{e} \\ -\check{\imath}\end{array}\right.$ |
| $-\bar{o}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\bar{\sigma}(\text { Qamets chatuph }) \\ -\breve{u}\end{array}\right.$ |

To these add the half-vowels
 as the utmost shortenings.

Let the student compare here again what was said in § 9 on the character and value of the several vowels, and in $\S 25$ on the unchangeable vowels.

According to the principles laid down in $\$ 26$ the following changes occur:-

1. A tone-long vowel is changed into a kindred short one, when a closed syllable loses the tone $(\$ 26,5)$. Thus when the

 whole-of-the-people; also when the tone is moved backwards, e. g. ם with a long vowel becomes by inflexion a closed one, e. g.
 these cases Tsere ( $\bar{e}$ ) passes, over into Seghol (ĕ) or Chireq ( $\overline{)}$ ), Cholem ( $\bar{o}$ ) into Qamets-chatuph ( $($ ). But when a closed syllable with a long vowel becomes a sharpened one, i. e. ending with a doubled consonant, Tsere is attenuated into Chireq, and Cholem into Qibbuts, as mother, my mother ; pin statute, fenn.埅•

The short vowels $\check{z}$ and $\bar{u}$ are more pure, and hence pass for shorter than $\tilde{e}$ and $\check{o}$.
2. On the contrary, a short vowel is changed into a corresponding long one:-
a) When a closed syllable, in which it stands, becomes an open one, i. e. when the word receives an accession, beginning with a vowel, to which the final consonant of the closed syllable
 give ye.
b) When a syllable, which should be sharpened by Daghesh
forte, has a guttural for its final consonant (see $\delta 22,1$ ), or stands at the end of a word (see $\{20,3, a)$.
c) When it meets with a feeble letter ( $£ 23,1,2 ; 824,2)$; as שָָׁ
d) When the syllable is in pause, i. e. is the tone-syllable of the last word in the clause $(\S 29,4)$.
3. When a word increases at the end, and the tone is at the same time shifted forward, all vowels (long and short) may, according to the division of syllables, either pass over into a halfvowel (vocal Sh ${ }^{\text {e }} \mathrm{va}$ ), or even wholly fall away, and make room for the mere syllable-divider (silent Sh ${ }^{\text {e va) , e. g. }}$.
 ther the vowel remains, or is changed into a half-vowel, or quite
 a monosyllable disappears, must be determined by the nature of the word; but in general it may be said, that in the inflexion of nouns the first vowel is usually shortened, as (dear), fem. ! י $y^{\circ} q \bar{a} r \bar{a}$; in the inflexion of verbs, the second, as (he is deur), fem. .
a) Qamets and Tsere in the first syllable (principally in the inflexion of nouns), as word, plur. fem. turn,
b) The short or merely tone-long vowels, $a, e, o$, in the last syllable, especially in the inflexion of verbs, E. g. fer for
 The Seghol as a helping-vowel falls quite away (becomes
 ing of the tone, the vowel will remain notwithstanding the

Where the tone is advanced two places, both the vowels of a dissyllabic word may be shortened so that the first becomes $i$ and the second quite falls away. From ? קָבְּים, and with a grave suffix [i. e. one that always has the
 shortening of $\breve{a}$ into $\check{\imath}$ see especially in Rem. 3 below.

[^42]Some other vowel-changes, mostly with respect to quantity, are exhibited in the following remarks:-

Rem. 1. The diphthongal it (from $a u$ ), as also the $\hat{\delta}$ sprung from the firm $a\left(\{9,10,2)\right.$, is longer than ${ }^{\circ} \bar{u}$; and hence, when the tone is moved forward, the former is often shortened into the latter. E. g. ロipș, תimpry
 sweel, fem. מחמחּקמ. The stands sometimes even in a sharpened syllable,
 and ${ }^{n}-\bar{\imath}$.

On the contrary i $\bar{u}$ is shortened into $\check{o}$, which appears in the tonesyllable as a tone-long $\sigma$ (Cholem), but on the removal of the tone becomes
 rise), tone-long Tsere ( $\bar{e}$ ), and in the absence of the tone, Seghol ( $\check{e}$ ), as
 M. Hiphil.
2. From a Pattach ( $\check{a})$ in a closed syllable there arises a Seghol ( $\bar{c}$ ), through a farther shortening or rather weakening of the sound. This happens,
a) Sometimes when the tone hastens on to the following syllable, as
 Daghesh $f$. is omitted in a letter which would regularly close a sharpened


b) Necessurily and always when Daghesh forte is omitted in a guttural that
 brothers for so always with $\pi$. With $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ and $z^{\prime \prime}$ the Seghol is used ouly where a greater shortening is required on account of the distance of the tone, hence ann
 so casily stand ( $\$ 22,1$ ), Qamets is almost constantly used, as הָאָּ

c) In syllables properly ending with two consonants, e. g. ַַּלְ (also in Arabic

 finally 3גֶ*.
3. In a closed (and sharpened) syllable, which loses the tone, $\check{a}$ is at
 for


[^43]4. The Seghol arises, besides the cases given above in Rem. 2, also
a) From the weakening of $\bar{a}$ (Qamets) at the end of a word (comp. Roma, French Rome ; Arab. מֶּ what? (\$37, 1), see similar examples in Ps. xx. 4 ; Is. lix. 5; Zech. ix. 5.
b) Even from the weakening of $u$, as (Arab. antum), see § 32, Rem. 5; Comp. page 40.
5. Among the half-vowels, ( $-:$ ) is shorter and lighter than ( $\because:$ ) and the group ( $-\overline{\mathrm{r}}$ ) than ( $-\bar{m}$ ), e. g.


Sect. 28.

## RISE OF NEW VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

1. When a word begins with a half-syllable ( $(26,4)$, i. e. with a consonant which has a half-vowel (vocal Sh ${ }^{e}$ va), and there comes another half-syllable before it, then this latter receives instead of the She va an ordinary short vowel, which is regularly $\check{\imath}$ (Chireq), but with gutturals $\check{a}$ (Pattach). E. g. קְּלֹל (to fall) $n^{e} p h o ̄ l$, with the preposition $\xlongequal{\square}$ not $b^{e} n^{e} p h o l l$, but


 division of syllables takes place, so that the second consonant gives up its half-vowel and forms a closed syllable with the first,


 diately from a full vowel, and is more like $\bar{\imath}$ in

In Syriac, the usual vowel here is $\check{a}(\breve{e})$, even in the absence of gutturals; in Chaldee it is the same as in Hebrew; the Arabic has always a firm short vowel for the vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{e}$ va.
2. When the second of the two consonants is a guttural with composite $S h^{e} v a$, then the first takes, instead of simple $S^{e}{ }^{e} v a$, the short vowel with which the other is compounded, so that we get the groups $\overline{-r},-\bar{n}$, $\overline{\pi / \pi}$, e. g.
 . בְּדְלִ. The new vowel in such cases has Methegh according to § 16, 2, a.
3. When the first $S h^{e} v a$ is composite and stands after an open syllable with a short vowel, then it is changed into the



4. At the end of words, syllables occur which close with two consonants ( $\$ 10,3, \S 26,7$ ); yet this takes place only when the last of these is a consonant of strong sound, $\vartheta, P$, or an aspirate with its hard sound (temuis), namely, ヨ, ワ, Т, ภ, , e. g. net let

 This harsh combination of letters is, however, avoided in general by supplying between the two consonants a hclping vowel, which is mostly Seghol, but Pattach under gutturals, $\dagger$ and Chireq after

 Mäged. These helping-vowels have not the tone, and they fall away whenever the word increases at the end.

These helping-vowels have inappropriately been called furtive, a term which should be restricted to the Pallach sounded before a final guttural, according to $\S 22,2, b$.
5. Full vowels rise out of half-vowels also by reason of the Pause, see § 29, 4.

Sect. 29.

## OF THE TONE; CHANGES OF THE TONE; AND OF THE PAUSE.

1. The principal tone, indicated by the accent ( $\$ 15,2$ ), rests


[^44](the last two examples have it even on additions to the root); less frequently on the penultima, as in

Connected with the principal tone is Methegh, a kind of secondary accent ( $\$ 16,2$ ). Small words which are united by Maqqeph with the following one, are destitute of the tone ( $\$ 16,1$ ).

It is not necessary here to single out the words accented on the penultima (roces penacutce); for the sake, however, of calling attention to these words, they chiefly are marked in this book with $二$, as sign of the tone.

In Arabic the tone is more on the penultima, and even on the antepenultima. The Syrians accent mosily the penultima; and the Hebrew is pronounced thus, contrary to the accents, by the German and Polish Jews,

2. The original tone of a word frequently shifts its place on account of changes in the word itself, or in its relation to other words. If the word is increased at the end, the tone is thrown forward (descendit) one or two syllables according to the length of the addition, as . קuׁm. For the consequent shortening of the vowels, see $\S 27$, 1, 3.

In one case the tone is thrown forward in consequence of accession at the beginning of the word. See $£ 44$, Rem. $5, b$.
3. On the contrary, the original tone is shifted from the final syllable to the penultima (ascendit),
a) In certain cases where a syllable is prefixed, as say,
 to the word, as nom, no not add.
b) When a monosyllabic word, or one with the tone on the penultima follows (in order to avoid the meeting of two tonesyllables).* E. g. 隹
 28 ; Ps. xxi. 2.
c) In pause. See No. 4.

The meeting of two tone-syllables (letter b) is avoided in another way, viz. by writing the words with Maqqeph between them, in which case the

[^45] whenever the penultima is an open sy llable with a long vowel. Compare § 47, Rein. 1, §50, Rem. 3, §51, Rem. 2.
4. Very essential changes of the tone, and consequently of the vowels, are effected by the Pause. By this term is meant the strong accentuation of the tone-syllable of the word which closes a period or member of a period, and on which the toine of the whole rests. This syllable is marked with one of the great distinctive accents, as
a) When the syllable in pause has a short vowel, it becomes

b) When a final tone syllable begins with two consonants (as萑, see ! 26,4), the vocal She va under the first gives place to a full vowel; a more fitting position is thus secured for the tone, which is moved from the last syllable to the new
 The vowel selected is always that which had been dropped from the same syllable, in consequence of the lengthening of the word. Moreover, vocal Sheva in pause becomes Seghol,
 long vowel, as
c) This tendency to place the tone on the penultima in pause, shows itself moreover in several words which then regularly retract the tone, as
 Job vi. 3 for from from .
The rule given under letter'a respects principally Pattach and Seghol. Seghol is however strong en sugh to be retained in pause when the syllable closes with Daghesh for ${ }^{\prime}$ e, as as :

Pattach is somstimes adopted in place of Seghol, as in pause




## PART SECOND.

## OT, FORMS AND INFLEXIONS, OR OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Sect. 30.

OF THE STEM-WORDS AND ROOTS (BILITERALS, TRILITERALS, QUADRILITERALS).

1. The stem-words of the Hebrew and of the other Shemitish languages have this peculiarity, that by far the most of them consist of three consonants, on which the meaning essentially depends, while its various modifications are expressed by changes in the vowels, e. g. אָּ he was red, red, wָדֶם man (prop. red one). Such a stem-word may be indifferently either a verb or a noun, and usually the language exhibits both to-
 and of practical utility for the beginner, to consider the third person singular of the Preterite, i. e. one of the most simple forms of the verb, as the stem-word, and the other forms of both the verb and the noun, together with most of the particles, as derived from it, e. g. צָּק he was righteous, צֶָּ righteousness, צֵּחִּיק righteous, \&c. Sometimes the language, as handed down to us, exhibits only the verbal stem without a corresponding form for the noun, as o̦ to stone, noun is found without the corresponding verb, e.g. south תin nine. Yet it must be supposed that the language, as spoken, often had the forms now wanting [most of them being actually found in the cognate dialects].

[^46]2. Many etynologists give the name root to the three stem-consonants, viewed as vowelless and unpronounceable, from which the stems for both the verbs and the nouns are developed, as in the vegetable kingdom (from which the figurative expression is taken) the stems grow out of the concealed root. Thus for example-

> Root: מלך (to reign).

This supposition of an unpronounceable root is, however, an abstraction too remote from the actual state of the language; and it is better, at least for the historical mode of treatment, to consider the concrete verb [ 3 pers. sing. pret.] as the stem-word.
3. These triliteral stems are generally of two syllables. But among them are reckoned also such as have for their middle letter a 9 , which is uttered as a vowel ( $\$ 24,2, c$ ), and thus reduces the form to one syllable,

2. The use of three consonants in the stems of the verbs and nouns is so prevalent a law in the Shemitish languages, that we must look upon it as a characteristic peculiarity of this family. Even such monosyllabic nouns as might be deemed originally monosyllables (biliteral roots), since they express the first, simplest, and
 this law ; thus we have Yet, on the other hand, stems with three consonants (triliteral roots) may be reduced to two consonants, which with a vowel uttered between, form a sort of root-syllable, from which again several triliteral stems with the same meaning lave sprung up. Such root-syllables are called primary or bilitcral roots. They are very easily made out when the stem has a feeble consonant or the same consonant in the second and third place. Thus,
 to beat in pieces, and the two stronger letters 77 dakh [comp. Eng. thwack] constitute the monosyllabic root. The third stemconsonant also may be strong. To such a monosyllabic root there often belongs a whole series of triliteral stems, which have two radical letters and the fundamental idea in common.

Only a few examples of this sort here:-
From the root $\mathrm{Y} P$, which imitates the sound of hewing, are derived immediately $\gamma^{\mathcal{Z}} \boldsymbol{P}_{\tau}$,
 Kadi, a judge). Related to this is the syllable up, op from which is


 Tip to cut asunder，to split．A softer form of this radical syllable is 07 ； hence a סָָ to cut off，to shear off；02J Syr．to sacrifice，to slay for sacrifice． Still softer are ia and $7 x$ ；hence riat to mow，to shear ；tivi to hew stones；
 cut，క゙ํㅗ to cut off；compare also
 split，divide， also

The syllable expresses the humming sound made with the mouth
 these add בהם to become mute，to be astonished．

The radical syllable 57 ，of which both letters have a tremulous sound，
 sive of what causes tremulous motion or agitation，as thunder（■ロ）），the act of shattering，of breaking in pieces（エエา，ケエา）．

Compare with these the radical syllable גב with the idea of elevation，



From a further consideration of this subject we may draw the following observations：－
a）These roots are mere abstructions from stems in actual use，and are them－ selves not in use．They nerely represent the hidden germs（semina）of the stems which appear in the language．Yet the latter have，now and then，so short a form that they exhibit only the elements of the root itself，

b）Most of these monosyllabic roots are imitations of natural sounds，and sometimes coincide with the roots of the Indo－Germanic stock．E．g． 5


c）The stems with hard，strong consonants are to be regarded，according to the general progress of language $(\S 6,4)$ ，as the olidest，while the feebler and softer consonants distinguish forms of a later period，which conse－ quently are more frequently used for the derivative and metaphorical sig－ nifications．E．g．חקר T and to be smooth，to be shorn，to be bald；and． even $n$ to be bare．Sometimes，however，the harder or softer sound is essential to the imitative character of the word，as 3 ？ ball，of the rolling of waves），but 7 more for a rough sound，as made in the act of scraping $=\sigma \alpha i \varrho \omega$ ，$\sigma \dot{\varrho} \varrho \omega$ ，verro ； $\mathfrak{\Sigma x}$ requires a stronger sound than to to cut grass，to mow．
d）It appears also that those consonants which resemble each other in strength or feebleness，are commonly associated in the formation of root－

 or very similar（אָה））．On the contrary the last two are very often the same（§ 66）．＊

[^47]e) The tendency to substitute smooth for harsh sounds (see letter $c$ ) is sometimes so great that $l, n, r$, especially when used as middle stem-letters, are even softened to vowels, as (comp. ©א), to press, and many others. Comp. salvare, French sauver; calidus, Ital. callo, in Naples caudu, lirench chaud; falsus, fulso, in Calabria fauzu, French faux; and the pronunciation of the English words talk, walk. Comp. § 19, 5, Rem.
$f$ ) Often, however, the three stem-letters must all be regarded as original, since all are necessary to make the sound of the word expressive of the sense, e. g. $\overline{7} \boldsymbol{T}$
 [Welsh brefu], to make a humming sound (to buzz, hence to spin), \&c.
A full developinent of this active change among the elements of the language, may be found in the later editions of Gesenius's Hebrew Lexicon. It is important that even the learner should be taught to regard the roots and their significations, not as the arbitrary creation of a people secluded from all the rest of the ancient world, but as imitations of nature, and as intimately connected with the well-known treasures of other languages, spoken by nations more nearly related to ourselves.
3. To a secondary process or later epoch of the language belong stem-words of four and, in the case of nouns, even of five consonants. These are, however, comparatively far less frequent in Hebrew than in its sister dialects.* This lengthening of the form is effected in two ways: a) by adding a fourth stemletter; $b$ ) by combining into one word two triliteral stems, so that then even quinqueliterals are formed. Such lengthened forms as arise from the mere repetition of some of the three
 quadriliterals, but as variations in conjugation (\$54). So likewise the few words which are formed by prefixing שׁׂ, as שְׁ?


Rem on $a$ ). Some forms are made by the insertion particularly of $l$ and $r$ between the first and second radicals; as $\square \mathfrak{D}$,
 form with $\urcorner$ frequent in Syr.). This mode of formation is analogous with
 Some letters, however, have been falsely considered incompatible, as לף, which are often found associated. e. g. in ${ }^{2}$
 much that is analogous in Sanskrit.

- Especially in Æthiopic. where these forms are very frequent, see Hupfeld's Exercitatt Ethiop. pp. 24 foll.
 Latin there is a correspondent lengthening of the stem; as findo, scindo, tundo, jungo, from fill, scid ( $\sigma x \varepsilon \delta \dot{x} \omega)$ ), tud, jug. Additions are also made at the end, principally of $l$ and $n$; as

 nutive force, as it has in many languages).

Rem. on $b$ ). In the combination of triliterals, it generally happens that letters common to them both are written but once in the compound form, as
 rest; or a feeble letter is cast away, as עֲ flying. Still bolder changes are sometimes made in the amalgamation of


It should be remarked that quadriliterals may be shortened again into triliterals. E.g. from לחַּ (hop, see above), לגח with the same signification; hence חָּגְלְה a purtridge (from its hopping, limping gait);

4. To an earlier stage of the language, on the contrary, belong the pronouns ( $\$ 32$ foll.), and some particles, especially interjections ( $\$ 103,1$ ), which as an ancient and crude formation have not attained to the model of the triliteral stems, and follow peculiar and freer laws of inflexion.* Most of the particles, however, are either derived from nouns or resemble them in inflexion, although their form is often very much shortened on account of their enclitic nature, and their origin can no longer be known. (See §97, \&c.)

SECt. 31.

## OF GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE.

1. The formation of the parts of speech from the roots, and their inflexion, are effected in two ways: 1) by changes in the stem itself, particularly in its vowels; 2) by the addition of formative syllables. A third method, viz. the use of several separate words in place of inflexion (as in expressing the comparative degree and several relations of case), belongs rather to the Syntax than to that part of grammar which treats of forms.

The second mode of forming words, namely, by agglutination, which is

[^48]exemplified in the Egyptian, appears on the whole to be the more ancient of the two. Yet other languages, as well as the Shemitish, had early recourse also to the first mode, namely, internal modification of the stem, and in the period of their youthful vigour developed a strong tendency to follow this process; but in their later periods this tendency continually diminished in force, so that it became necessary to use syntactical circumlocution. This is exemplified in the Greek (including the modern) and in the Latin with its corrupt branches [called the Romance language]. The formation of words by agglutination is prevalent in ancient and modern Egyptian; that by internal modification in Sanskrit and Greek; the Chinese is almost entirely destitute of any grammatical structure, and supplies its place by syntactical methods.
2. Both methods of formation and inflexion are found in Hebrew. That which is effected by vowel-changes exhibits con-
 ample of the other method in הִתק, and of both in the same word in bles occurs, as in almost all languages, in the formation of the persons of the verb, where also the import of these annexed syllables is still, for the most part, perfectly clear (see $\$ 844,47$ ); moreover it occurs in the distinction of gender and number in the verb and the noun. Of case-endings, on the contrary, there appear in Hebrew only slight traces [ $\$ 88$ ].

## CHAPTER I.

## OF THE PRONOUN.

Sect. 32.

## OF THE PERSONAL OR SEPARATE PRONOUN.

1. The personal pronoun (as well as the pronouns generally) is among the oldest* and simplest elements of the language ( $\$ 30$, 4). On this account, and because it lies at the foundation of the flexion of the verb ( $\$ 44,47$ ), it properly claims our first attention.

[^49]2. The pronouns in their separate and chief forms, or as expressing the nominative, are the following :-

| Singular. | Plural. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  <br>  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| \{ $f$. | ¢. |  |
| 3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { m. } \sin \text { he }\end{array}\right.$ |  | they |

The forms included in parenthesis seldom occur. A complete view of these pronouns with their abbreviated forms (suffixes) is given at the end of the grammar in Parad. A.

## Remarks.

## I. First Person.

1. The form The former exists in the Phœenician, but in no other of the kindred dialects;* from the latter are formed the suffixes (§ 33). In the Talmud wex is constantly used, and wָּבְ very seldom.
2. The formation of the plural in this and the other persons, though analogous with that of verbs and nouns, exhibits (as also in the pronoun of other languages) much that is irregular and arbitrary. צֶֻum is manifestly the plural of (waith the exchange of $כ$ for $M$ ), as also is of , wֻּ The form from which the suffixes are derived, occurs only in Jer. xlii. 6 ( $K^{e} t h i b h$ ). The form xlii. 11, Numb. xxxii. 32. (In the Talınud wֻג alone appears).
3. The first person alone is of the common gender, because one that is present speaking needs not the distinction of gender as. does the second person addressed (in Greek, Latin, and German [as also in English, Celtic, \&c.] the distinction is omitted here also), and the third person spoken of.

## II. Second Person.

4. Instead of Daghesh forte in the kindred dialects have an $n$ before the $ラ$, Arab. unta f. anti thou, plur. antum. f. antunna ye. The essential syllable is $n \underset{\sim}{n} t \bar{a}$ (see $\S 44,1$ ); the an prefixed is demonstrative, and gives more support to the form. out $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ occurs only five times, e. g. Ps. vi. 4, and each time as $\boldsymbol{K}^{e} /$ hibh with

[^50]the $Q^{e} r i$ nin．As the vowels of the text belong to the $Q^{e} r i(\S 17)$ ，the reading of the $K^{e}$ ehiblu may have been $\operatorname{mp}$ as an abbreviation from

The feminine form was originally pronounced ${ }^{\text {m}}$ designation $n$－，probably from אn she，properly thou she，compare 4 found in a few instances（Judg．xvii．2， 1 Kings xiv．2）．Some forms in the inflexion of the verb are derived from it（ $\S 44$, Rem． $4, \S 58,1$ ）．The ${ }^{n}$ ， however，was but slightly heard（in Syriac it was at length only written， not pronounced），and therefore fell away，so that the Jewish critics，even in the above mentioned pasenges，place in the $Q^{e} r i m, ~ w h o s e ~ S h e r ~ v a ~$ stands in the punctuation of the text $(\$ 17)$ ．The same final $n$ appears，


5．The plurals Ens，漈 anx（Arab．antum，Chal．
 place to the obtuse sound of $e$ ，somewhat in the manner of the third person．
 and in Gen．xxxi．6；Ez．xiii．11， 20 ；xxxiv．17．For the ending $\pi-$ see No． 7.

## III．Third Person．

6．The N was，perhaps，heard at the end of $\times$ ， half－vowel，hía，hía，as $e$ in German die（old Germ．thíu，thía），sie，wie． A trace of this appears in the Arabic；as huwa，hiya，in the common dia－ lect húa，hía．

The masculine הish is of common gender in the Pentateuch，in which it is used also for she．（See § 2，3．）The punctators，however，whenever it stands for איח？，give it the appropriate pointing of this form（חוא），and require it to be read（comp．§ 17）．It is，however，to be sounded rather according to the old furm המוּ．

7．The plural forms an and are got from 心hat and in the same manner as $=$ grons hunna，the obscure vowel－sound is retained．The $\pi-$ in both forms（ He
 izn），Arab．and Ethiop．（humū，homū）there is a 9 （as Cholem or Shureq） appended，which occurs in Hebrew in the poetical forms is，i々 $\frac{7}{7}$ ，in $\frac{-}{*}$ § 57，3，Rem．1）：
 strative pronouns（see § 120，1）．

Sect． 33.

## SUFFIX PRONOUN．

1．The full and separate forms of the pronoun，as given in the foregoing section，express only the nominative ：＊the accusa－

[^51]tive and genitive, on the contrary, are expressed by shortened forms or fragments which are joined to the end of verbs, nouns, and particles (suffix pronouns, usually suffixes), e. g. in him and
 horse.

Instances of the same construction occur in Greek, Latin, and German,
 du hast's for du hast es [comp. vulgar English give'm for give them]. In Hebrew this is done systematically, as in Egyptian, Hungarian, and some other languages.
2. Concerning the cases which these suffixes denote, let it be remarked :-
a) When joined to verbs, they denote the accusative (but comp.

b) When joined to substantives, they denote the genitive (like пuт $\dot{\eta}_{\rho} \mu \circ v$, pater ejus), and then serve as possessive pronouns, as
c) When joined to particles, they denote either the genitive or the accusative, according as the particle has the meaning of a noun or a verb, e. g. 'S.̧̣ (prop. my vicinity) with me, like mea caussa, on the contrary
d) The dative and ablative of the pronoun are expressed by combining the prepositions that are signs of these cases (? sign
 him,
3. Some of these suffixes are probably derived from forms of the separate pronoun which were early lost in Hebrew, as
 to the afformatives of the verb ( $\$ 44,1$ ).
4. The suffix of the verb (the accusative) and the suffix of the

[^52]noun (the genitive) are mostly the same in form, but sometimes they are different, e.g. $\quad$. $m e, ~\urcorner m y$.

For a view of all the forms of the pronoun both separate and suffix, see Paradigm A; more explanation about the suffix of the verb and the mode of attaching it to the verb will be found in $\S \S 57-60$, about the suffix of the noun in $\S 89$, about prepositions with suffixes in $\S 101$.

## Sect. 34.

## THE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN.

| Sing. $m$. | तֶ** |
| :---: | :---: |
| $f$. |  |

Plur. comm. يֵּהּה (rarely לیֵ) these.
The feminine form nine ending $\Omega$, see $\$ 79,2$ ); and the forms ir, $i t$, which are both of rare occurrence, come from $n$ sit by dropping $n$. The forms אn and (akin to the Arabic article plural according to use and not according to grammatical inflexion. לs, occurs only in the Pentateuch and 1 Chr. xx. 8, and always with the article (same as $\pi_{-}$) is a demonstrative appendage, as in ( $\$ 32$, Rem. 7).

Another secondary form of the demonstrative is 7 , used only in poetry. It stands mostly for the relative [like that for who], and is used alike for all numbers and genders, like
 to the same rules as the adjectives, $\S 109,2$. There are, besides, some peculiar forms in which $\frac{2}{}$ is inserted after the article, xxxvii. 19; 근 fem. Ez. xxxvi. 35, and shortened Judges vi. 20; 1 Sam. xiv. 1; xvii. 26; but fem. in 2 Kings iv. 25. In Arabic there is a corresponding form alladhī as relative pronoun.
2. Some other pronominal stems occur among the particles, § 97, \&c. [see also § 115, note].

[^53]
## Sect. 35.

## THE ARTICLE.

Originally the article was a demonstrative pronoun, akin to the pronoun of the third person, but of so feeble import that it was scarcely used except in connexion with the noun. Its usual form is $\boldsymbol{T}$, with a short sharp-spoken $\breve{a}$ and a doubling of the
 (הַיָּר (according to $\S 20,3, b$ ).

When the article $\boldsymbol{T}$ stands before a word beginning with a guttural, then the Daghesh forte cannot (according to $£ 22,1$ ) be used, and hence the short and sharp $\breve{a}$ (Pattach) is lengthened into $\bar{u}$ (Qamets) or $\ddot{a}$ (Seghol).

But to be more minute:-

1) Before the weakest guttural $\$$ and before $7(\$ 22,5)$ the vowel of the article is always lengthened, as
 שָ่ The head, דָּ the evil-doer.
2. For the other gutturals it is in general the rule, that the stronger the guttural the firmer is the syllable of the article, both as to its sharpness and its short $\breve{a}$. But there are then two cases to be distinguished:-
A) When the guttural is followed by some other vowel than - or $\tau_{i}$, then $a$ ) before $\pi$ and $\pi$ (as being stronger), the article
 the strength; with rare exceptions, as הָהח Gen. vi. 19, and always הָה those; b) before y the Pattach is generally
 pl. הֶֶָבְדִים. (Exceptions in Jer. xii. 9.)
B) But when the guttural is followed by $\underset{\tau}{ }$, then $a$ ) before $\underset{T}{T}$ and $\underset{\sim}{\geqslant}$ the article is always $\underset{\sim}{T}$, provided it stands immediately
 the mountain, דָּ דָּיֶ (in pause), on the contrary $\pi_{T}$ the article is always $\pi$, without regard to the place of the

 חהחקּכָּ according to A, a.)

Gender and number have no influence on the form of the article.

Rem. 1. It is commonly assumed that the original form of the Hebrew article was 3 , the 3 being always assimilated to the following letter. But on the contrary-1) the form $\underset{\sim}{r}$, $\boldsymbol{T}$ is in itself demonstrative; comp. in Aram. and Arab. הָ ecce: 2) nowhere occurs in its full form, not even in demonstrative form $\underset{V}{ }: 3$ ) the Arab. article $3 \underset{\text { x }}{ }$, adduced in support of this assumption, belongs to another and distinct pronominal sten related to the Heb. אֵּתֶ. It occurs indeed in the Old Testament, but with certainty only in the Arabic name אֲ אֲ the people Prov. xxx. 31, and in Unּ xxxviii. 22.
2. When the prepositions $\underset{\substack{3}}{3}$, and the of comparison ( $\$ 100$ ) come before the article, the $\pi$ falls away and the preposition takes its points

 with the word), the $\pi$ very often remains, as and Gen. xxxix. 11, but also books, as 2 Chron. x. 7. (But see 1 Sam. xiii. 21.) With y, which in conception is still less closely connected with the word, the $n$ always remains, as

## Sect. 36.

## THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

The relative pronoun for both genders and numbers is who, which. In the later books, and even in some of the earlier, as in Canticles throughout, and occasionally in Judges,
 according to $\$ 19,2,3$; more rarely the form Judges v. 7, Cant. i. 7, and before $\boldsymbol{\mathcal { K }}$ in a single instance $\underset{\sim}{\oplus}$ Judges vi. 17, though elsewhere $\underset{\sim}{\dot{v}}$ before the gutturals. The still more abbreviated form שְׂ* occurs Eccles. ii. 22 [in some copies]; iii. 18. For the manner in which the cases of the relative are expressed, see § 121.1.

గ్ֶּ is used also as a conjunction, like quod, ö on, that. Closely con-

[^54]nected with it in meaning is , which also belongs to the pronominal steme, § 102.

Sect. 37.

## THE INTERROGATIVE AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. The interrogative pronoun is who? (of persons), and Towhat? (of things).

The pointing of $\boldsymbol{H}$ with Qamets is seldom found except in pause and before $x$ and 7 , as rarely before $n$ as in Josh. iv. 6, 21. It is commonly written in close connexion with the following word: a) מַּה with Maqqeph and Daghesh forte

 harder gutturals in, M, コ, it likewise receives Pattach with the Daghesh implied in the guttural ( $(22,1)$, מִהּ-הוּא Num. xiii. 18 ; c) when the guttural has Qumets, it receives Seghol (according to §27, Rem. 2), as what hast thou done? This Seghol stands also occasionally before letters that are not guttural, as 'מֶ wip what voice, fc.? 1 Sam. iv. 6 ; 2 Kings i. 7, but only when the tone of the clause is far removed from the word; moreover in the form no in the note).
2. Both מִּ and occur also as an indefinite pronoun, in the sense of whoever, whatever.

## CHAPTER II.

OF THE VERB.
Sect. 38.

## GENERAL VIEW.

1. The verb is, in the Hebrew, the most elaborated part of speech as to inflexion, and also the most important, inasmuch as it mostly contains the stem of the others ( $\S 30$ ), and its various modifications are, to a great extent, the basis of the other forms in the language.
2. Yet all verbs are not stem-words. Like nouns they may be divided, in respect to their origin, into three classes.

b) Verbal dervatives, derived from other verbs, e.g. P to jus-
tify, הִצְטַּדּ to justify one's self, from to be just ; commonly called conjugations (\$39).
c) Denominatives, or those derived from nouns; e. g.


These appear to be of later origin than the two preceding classes, which they imitate in their forms.

The noun from which the denominative verb comes, is in most cases

 ม

A peculiar kind of secondary verbs, and at least of rather late formation in the language (hence frequent in the later dialects), are those denominatives, one of whose consonants, originally a servile, has become a radical.

 tion (from שׁׂוּ), hence

Sect. 39.

1. The third person of the Preterite is generally regarded as the stem-form of the verb, as pָּ he has killed, he we was heavy.* From this are derived the other persons of the Preterite and the Participle. Another, more simple still, is the Infinitive, with which the Imperative generally agrees in form, and from which is derived the Future, as apen $_{\text {, }}$, also

The first ground-form, of two syllables (Arab. qatala, qatila, qatula), may be called the concrete; and the second, which is generally monosyllabic (Arab. qutl, qitl, qut), the abstract. The same analogy prevails in the division of uouns into abstract and concrete.

In verhs whose second radical is 9 , the full stem appears only in the

2. From this stem are formed, according to an unvarying analogy in all verbs, the verba derivata, each distinguished by a specific change in the form of the stem, with a corresponding definite change in its signification (intensive, frequentative, causative; passive, reflexite, reciprocal). E. g. דָּ to learn, to cause to learn, to teact; ; ָּׁu to lie, to cause to lie, to lay ; שָׁפַּט to judge, to contend before a judge, to litigate.

* The infinitive is here used for the sake of brevity in most Grammars and Lexicons, thus דֶּ to learn, prop. he has learned.

In other languages such words are regarded as new derivative verbs; e.g. to fall, to fell ; jacěre, to throw, jacēre to lic ; yivouac to be born, yยv$\nu \dot{c} \omega$ to bear. But in Hebrew, where these formations are beyond comparison more regular than in any other language, they are called, since the time of Reuchlin, conjuga-
 ground-form, and both in the Grammar and the Lexicon are always treated of in connexion as parts of the same verb.
3. The changes of the ground-form consist partly in varying its vowels, or doubling one or more of its letters (
 partly in the addition of formative letters or syllables (?ְ: ;ִקְשִיל; comp. to speak, to bespeak; to count, to recount ; bid,


In the Aramæan this is effected less by the change of vowels than by the addition of formative syllables; so that, for instance, all the passives are formed as reflexives by the prefix syllable $\pi \kappa, \pi$, $\pi$. The Arabic is rich in both methods, while the Hebrew holds also here the middle place ( $\$ 1,6$ ).
4. Grammarians differ as to the number and arrangement of these conjugations. The common practice, however, of giving to them still the old technical designations, prevents any error. The ground-form is called Kal ( b p light, because it has no formative additions) ; the others ( בְּבֵדים heavy, because burdened with formative additions) derive their names from the Paradigm used by the old Jewish Grammarians, לָּ Several of them have passives which distinguish themselves from their actives by the obscure vowels. The most common conjugations (including Kal) are the five following; but few verbs, however, exhibit them all.

[^55]Active.

1. Kal. Tָ to kill.
2. Niphal. :? to kill one's self.
3. Piël.
4. Hiphil. הִקְ to cause to kill.
5. Hithpaël.

Passive.
(wanting.)
(very rare.)
Pual.
Hophal. Tָּקִשַׁל
Hothpaal. דָּ Tip

There are several other less frequent conjugations, of which some, however, are more common than these in the kindred languages, and in the irregular verb in Hebrew they sometimes take the place of the usual conjugations ( $\$ 54$ ).

In Arabic there is a greater variety of forms, and the series of derived conjugations, with their mutual relation, though not perfect, exhibits more regularity than in Hebrew. Arranged after the Arabic manner, the He brew conjugations would stand thus:-1. Kul. 2. Piël and Pual. 3. Poël and Poal (!54, 1). 4. Hiphil and Hophal. 5. Hithpaël and Hothpaal. 6. Ifithpoël (§54). 7. Niphal. 8. Wauting in Hebrew. 9. Pilel. The most appropriate division is into three classes ; 1) The intensive Piell, with the analogous forms derived from it; 2) The causative Miphil, and its analogous forms (Shaphel, Tiphel) ; 3) The reflexive and passive Niphal.

Sect. 40.

1. The Hebrew verb is indebted, for whatever copiousness it exhibits, chiefly to these conjugations or derivative verbs. In moods and tenses it is very poor, having only two tenses (Preterite and Future*), an Imperative, an Infinitive (with two forms), and a Participle. All other relations of time, absolute and relative, must be expressed by these, either alone (hence the diversity in the senses of the same form, $£ 123, \& c$.) or in syntactical connexion with other words. The jussive and optative are sometimes indicated by peculiar forms of the future (see $\vdots 48$ ).
[^56][^57]the Preterite and, in some conjugations, the Participle; the Infinitive is the ground-form of the other, which embraces the Imperative, which is generally of the same form, the Future; and often the Participle. E. g.

| Kal, Pret. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Niph. - | ? |
| Kal, Inf. and Imp. | ? |
| Piël, - - |  |

3. In the inflexion of the Pret. and Fut. by persons, the Hebrew differs from the Western languages, having in most cases distinct forms for both genders, as in the personal pronoun, which is incorporated in the forms of these tenses.

Sect. 41.
In the formation of all the verbs there is the same general analogy; and the Hebrew has properly no anomalous verbs, like those, for instance, in Greek, which end in $\mu$ c. The deviations which occur from the general model of the regular verb are owing-
a) To the presence of a guttural as one of the stem-letters or radicals, which occasions various vowel-changes according to § 22 (guttural verb, $8561-64$ );
b) To the falling away of a strong stem-letter by assimilation or contraction (contracted* verb, $\$ 66,66$ ), as
c) To the presence of a feeble letter as one of the radicals ( 9823 , 24 ), so that many changes occur through its commutation, omission, or quiescence (quiescent or feeble verb); ¿̊ 67-74),


The letters of the old Paradigm מַּ the stem, $\Xi$ designating the first, $y$ the second, and 3 the third. Hence the expressions, verb $\chi^{\prime \prime}$ for a verb whose first radical is $\mathcal{N}$ (primee radicalis $\times$ ) ; verb ${ }^{\prime \prime} 3$ for one whose third radical is $\pi$ (tertice radicalis $\pi$ ); verb (medice radicalis geminatce).

[^58]
## I. OF THE REGULAR VERb.

## Sect. 42.

As the rules for the formation of the regular verb apply, with only occasional modifications, to all the irregular verbs, it will be most convenient (and will also exhibit the subject in the most clear light to the learner) to present, while treating of the former, whatever belongs to the general analogy of the verb.

Paradign $B$ exhibits a complete view of the usual conjugations, with their inflexions, in their most general form. Full explanations are given in the following sections ( $43-51$ ), where every subject is elucidated on its first occurrence; thus under Kal the inflexions of the Preterite, of the Future, and its modifications, are minutely explained with reference also to the other conjugations; and under the regular verb are given the forms and significations of conjugations which apply also to the irregular, \&c.

## A. OF THE GROUND-FORM, OR KAL.

Sect. 43.

## ITS FORM AND SIGNIFICATION.

1. The common form of the 3 d person Pret. in the groundform is ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$, especially in transitive verbs. There is also a form with $E$ (Tsere), and another with $O$ (Cholem), in the second syllable ; the two latter are usually found with intransitive meaning, and for expressing states and qualities, e. g. to be heavy, tive and the intransitive, exist together, as אָ to fill (Esther vii. 5), א่ מָ to be full (comp. \&47, Rem. 2), yet also with the same sense for both forms, as phand to approach.

A verb middle $E$ will be found in the Paradigm by the side of a verb middle A.* The example selected shows, at the same time, the effect of inflexion on Daghesh lene in the middle stem-letter.

Rem. 1. The vowel of the second syllable is the principal vowel, and hence it distinguishes between the transitive and intransitive. The pretonc Qamets in the first syllable has little strength, and becomes vocal Sheva
 in the root itself, as לשַp,

Rem. 2. Examples of denominatives in Kal: 7 nָ̄ to cover with pitch, from nitch; pitch to salt, from

[^59]Sect. 44.

## PRETERITE OF KAL AND ITS INFLEXION.

1. The inflexion of the Preterite in respect to person, number, and gender, is effected by the addition of fragments of the personal pronouns (afformatives) to the end of the ground-form. In explaining this connexion, we may treat the ground-form as a participle, or a verbal adjective,* thus קָׁטלֹ killing-thou, or killer-thou (a killer wast thou), יְרֵאתֶם fearing ye, for קטל יריא אהם. אחד. In the second person this is readily seen, as well
 ${ }^{4}$, , the simple germ of the pronoun, united with the demonstrative sound $\Omega$, by which the afformative receives more support, and is at the same time distinguished from the suffix-forms and $\urcorner$ - (as if one would form $I$ after the analogy of
 is a designation of the feminine (as in the noun ( 979,2 ), and (orig. $7^{\text {In }}$ ) is a sign of the plural.

In the Indo-Germanic tongues the inflexion by persons originated in the same manner, as is shown in Greek by the Doric ending $\mu \varepsilon_{\zeta}$ (from ${ }^{\alpha} \mu \mu \varepsilon \varsigma$, we), and in Lain by mus, $\ddagger$ [and much better still in Welsh, e. g. wyf I am (with ending $f$ from $f i, \mathrm{I}$ ), wyt thou art (ending $t$ from $t i$, thou), yw he is (no ending as in Hebrew), $y m$ we are (ending $m$ from $n i$, we), $y$ ch you are (ending ch from churi, you), ynt they are (ending $n \ell$ from hwynt, they)]; but the traces of its oriyin are [except in Welsh] more obliterated than in Hebrew. This is true also of inflexion in the later Shemitish languages; e. g. I pers. Arab. qatallŭ, Syr. qetleth, where the characteristic $i$ is wholly lost.
2. In respect to vowel changes, the analogy of the 3 fem.


 and, in consequence, $\mathrm{Sh}^{\text {e }}$ va under the first radical ( $\$ 27,3$ ).

[^60]N. B. Rem. 1. Verbs middle $E$, falling back in their inflexion to the type of verbs middle $A$, generally lose the $E$ sound, which passes over into (-), as the Paradigm shows. The original $\boldsymbol{E}$ appears, however, regularly in the feeble stems $\kappa^{\prime \prime}$ ( (\$73, Rem. 1); in strong stems only in pause, i. e. when the stress of voice falls upon it, as ${ }^{\circ}$ 2 Sam. i. 23 ; Job xli. 15.
2. In some feeble stems middle $A$, the $a$ under the second radical sometimes passes over into - or - , when the syllable is closed and toneless, and the first radical has not a full vowel ( $\$ 27$, Rem. 2, 3). Thus ye have asked 1 Sam. xii. 13, ทּุุ ye possess Deut. iv. 1, 22; so also before suffixes gotten thee Ps. ii. 7. Such forms must not be considered verbs middle $E$ : the weakening of the vowel is owing simply to the general weakness of the form, and the 3 pers. pret. is strictly 4h. See §68, Rem: 4, and §72, Rem. 4.
3. In verbs middle $O$, the Cholem is retained in inflexion where it has

 and thou will be able, Ex. xviii. 23.
4. Unfrequent forms.* Sing. 3 fem. in 5 - (as in Arab. AEthiop. Aram.), e.g. Melink Deut. xxxii. 36. Before suffixes this is the prevailing form (§ 58, 2).-2 mas. $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{T}}$ (the full form) for $\underset{\text {, }}{\text {, as }}$ as Gen. iii. 12. It often occurs.-2 fem. sometimes has still a Yorlh at the
 § 32, Rem. 4), especially in Jeremiah and Ezekiel. With this is connected
 as $\mathrm{m}_{2}{ }_{2} p_{\mathrm{T}}$, Ps. cxl. 13 ; Job xlii. 2; 1 Kings viii. 48. This however is found only in $\mathrm{K}^{\mathrm{e}}$ thibh; the $\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{e}}$ ri substitutes the full form.-Plur. 2 fem. Amos iv. 3.-3 com. seldom with the full plural ending ${ }^{4}$ (often in Chald.

 see § 47, Rem. 4.
N. B. 5. In connexion with the afformatives $\underset{\sim}{7}$, $\boldsymbol{n}^{2}$, 物, the tone is on the penultima, and the word is Milèl; with the others it is Milra $(\S 15,2)$. The place of the tone is shifted, $a$ ) in several persons by the Pause ( $\$ 29$, 4), where it is moved backwards and at the same time the vowel of the second syllable, if it had fallen away, is restored, as b) By Vav conversive of the Preterite, where it is moved forwards one syllable (48b, 3).

[^61]Sect. 45.

## OF THE INFINITIVE.

1. The second ground-form of each conjugation is the Infinitive in its shorter form (Infinitive construct), in Kal לup. This is the most usual form of the Infinitive, and is employed not merely when a genitive follows, but also, necessarily, when a
 tive absolute), in Kal bivit, is used when the action of the verb is presented by itself, without direct connexion with other words ; and most frequently, when the Infinitive is added to the finite verb for the sake of emphasis (see the particulars of this in $\S 128$ ). The first is the original Infinitive, from which the second was subsequently formed. The first has more of the character of a verbal noun; the second expresses rather the abstract idea of the verb. E. g. הָּרֹג בָּקר Is. xxii. 13, means to slay cattle ; but הָּ 즈구ํ would mean the slaying of the cattle.
2. Between לivp and לop, in Kal, there is much the same relation* as between the absolute and the construct states of nouns of this form (see $\S 91$, Paradigm III.); with this difference, however, that the Infinitive absolute has Cholem unchangeable, the Infinitive construct Cholem changeable, (hence with Suff. Meper , while the noun has its final vowel unchangeable in both states.

Besides 3tup the Infin. constr. has the following unusual forms:

 to hate, a verbal noun, too, the Infin. may take the feminine ending.)

These unfrequent forms are in more common use as verbal nouns ( $\$ 83$, Nos. 10, 11, 14).
3. A sort of Gerund is formed in Hebrew by the Inf. constr.

[^62]with the preposition ?, as ? ? interficiendo, ad interficiendum. ?

The $?_{3}$ is here so closely connected that it constitutes part of the grammatical form, as appears from the syllable-division and the use of Daghesh

 prepositions and $\underset{\square}{3}$ are conceived to be less closely connected with the Infinitive.

Sect. 46.

## OF THE IMPERATIVE.

1. The chief form of the Imperative (קְטֶל) is the same that lies also at the basis of the Future (\$47), and which, when viewed as an Infinitive ( $\$ 45$ ), is likewise allied to the noun.* It expresses only the second person, but has inflexions for the Feminine and the Plural. For the third person it has no form (see $£ 127$, Rem. 2); and even the second must be expressed by the Future (in the jussive form, $\$ 48$ ) when a negative precedes,
 gations have no Imperative, $\dagger$ but the reflexive Niphal and Hithpaël have.
2. The inflexion is quite similar to that of the Future, and it will be comprehended from the explanations given below in § 47, 2. Like the Future, the Imperative also has a lengthened and a shortened form, the first in the manner of the cohortative, the second after the analogy of the jussive (see $\S 48,5$ ).

Rem. 1. Besides the form ${ }^{3} \underbrace{}_{\text {pter }}$ there is also one with Pattach, as (as in the Inf. and Fut.) 2 Sam. xiii. 5. The Pattach is quite regular in隹, from
2. Less frequently there is found in the first syllable of the feminine and

[^63]plural form an $\dot{o}$ (Qamets-chatuph) instead of the $\dot{i}$, as

3. In the form vowel is introduced, as in hear ye f. for hem
 to the guttural.

## Sect. 47.

## OF THE FUTURE AND ITS INFLEXION.*

1. Fragments of the personal pronoun are employed in the inflexion of the Future as well as of the Preterite; but in the Future these fragments are prefixed (preformatives) $\dagger$ to the root in the abstract form, viz. the Infin. constr. (iv). These formative particles, inasmuch as they stand before the verbal form, towards the end of which the tone continually tends, are much more abbreviated than the afformatives of the Preterite, so that in every case, only one consonant remains ( $\urcorner \cdot \boldsymbol{\circ}, \mathrm{s}, \boldsymbol{2}$ ), mostly with a very short vowel, viz. vocal Sh ${ }^{\text {e }}$ va. But as this is not always sufficient to mark at the same time the distinction of gender and of number, the defect is supplied by additions at the end.
2. The derivation and signification both of the preformatives and afformatives, are still in most cases clear.
 ? of
[^64]In the 2d pers．sing．the $\boldsymbol{m}$ in为 is the sign of the feminine，as in thou（feminine，sce $\$ 32$, Rem．4）．In the 2d pers．plur．the 7 （more fully ${ }^{\dagger}$ ，see Rem．4）in ane is the sign of the plural as in the 3 d person and already in the Preterite（ $\$ 44,1$ ），and is here appropriated to
 （in Chaldee $\dagger_{-}$），or borrowed from

In the 3d person ？יְe，the＇stands most probably as a
 the beginning of a word was mostly avoided in Hebrew（§68）．
 same as the second person，is probably allied to the feminine ending ！－［or it may come，as Gesenius thought，from sin she， by changing $\pi$ into $\pi$ ，which is often done］．

3．In the course of inflexion the final vowel is dropped in some forms，while in others it is retained．In this respect the analogy of יִשי is followed by all the other forms which receive



Rem．1．The final $\sigma$（Cholem）is only tone－long（ $\$ 9$, No．10，3），as in the Infin．and Inper．Hence，a）The examples in which it is written fully are very rare，and are to be regarded as exceptions．b）Before Maqqeph it becomes Qamets－chatuph；e．g． viii．32．c）It becomes vocal She ${ }^{e}$ va before the afformatives ${ }^{n}$－and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ ．In the few instances in which it remains before such afformatives，the pointing becomes t，because it stands close before the pause，e．g．刃ּ （they will judge），Ex．xviii．26；Ruth ii．8；comp．Prov．xiv． 3.

N．B．2．This Cholem is confined，alnost exclusively，to verbs middle $A$ ， like berp．Intransitive verbs（middle E and $O$ ）take $\check{a}$（Puttach）in the Future，as ？ times both forms exist together；the Fut．with $\sigma$ is then transitive，and that

 subrtued．Ex．xvii．13；Job xiv．10．More seldom both occur without any difference in signification；e．g．－i． lar verbs，the feeble $\bar{e}$（Tsere）is also found in the final syllable，as 滑！for筬．These three forms of the Future are called Future O，Future A， Future E．

[^65]3. For the 3 plur. fem. הִּ is substituted in three instances, to distinguish it from the 2 d pers., the form
 comp. Gen. xxx. 38; 1 Sam. vi. 12. In several instances have been used improperly for the 3 ll pers. singular, Ex. i. 10; Judg. v. 26 (and according to some Job xvii. 16; Is. xxviii. 3). (In the vulgar Arabic, necul, properly we eat, is the common form for I eat; and in the French patois, $j^{\prime}$ 'avons for $j$ jai). -In the Pentateuch $\downarrow$ ( $n \bar{a}$ ) occurs in place of $7 \boldsymbol{T}$, especially after Vav conversive ( $\S 48 \mathrm{~b}, 2$ ) ; e. g. Ex. i. 18, 19; xv. 20, as in Arabic.-A form still more abbreviated is found in the Imp. ( $\S 46$, Rem. 3). -Once occurs (Ezek. xvi. 50) the anomalous form serted, after the manner of verbs $=\ddot{\prime \prime}$ and $(\S 66,4, \S 71,5)$.
N. B. 4. The plural forms ending in ${ }^{\text {a }}$ appear also not unfrequently with the fuller ending in, most commonly with obvious stress on the word at the end of a period, where the vowel of the second syllable is then retained, as Tin
 Gen. xviii. $28,29,30,31,32$; Is. viii. 12 ; 1 Sam. ix. 13. But the preference for this form at the close of a period is clearly seen in Is. xxvi. 11, 3ב
 original ending it is common in Aramæan and Arabic; yet in the vulgar Arabic it is shortened. Of the Fut. with $\times$, א. Jer. $x .5$ is the only example.
5. In like manner has a longer form with final $\rceil$, namely which is also common in Aram. and Arabic. The ${ }^{7}$ - here is scarcely original ; probably it arose from imitation of the plural ending $\eta^{\eta}$. See examples in 1 Sam. i. 14; Ruth ii. S, 21; iii. 4, 18.
6. In Pause, the vowel of the second syllable, if it had become $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va, is restored and takes the tone, as

Sect. 48.

## Lengthening and shortening of the future and IMPERATIVE.

## (Jussive and Cohortative Forms.)

1. For the paucity of specific forms to express the relative Tenses and the Moods in the Hebrew and its kindred dialects, a small compensation is made by changes in the form of the Future, to which a certain signification is either exclusively or principally appropriated.
2. We must distinguish, accordingly, between the common

[^66]form of the Future and two others, viz. a lengthened form (with a cohortative force) and a shortened form (with a jussive force). The lengthened Future, however, occurs only in the first person (with unimportant exceptions), while its shortened form is confined to the second and third. In Hebrew, however, the shortspoken Jussive is not always orthographically distinguished from the common form of the Future.

> In Arabic the distinction is always clear. Besides the common Indicative Future yáqtulu, it has, $a$ ) a Subjunctive, yáqlula; b) a Jussive, yáqulul; and $c$ ) a so-called Future energic, yaqtulan, which is nearly related to the Heb. Cohortative.
3. The characteristic of the Cohortative is $\pi_{-}$(He paragogic) attached to the first person; e. g. הֶקטְל . It is found in all the conjugations and in all classes of regular and irregular verbs (except in the Passives), and has the tone wherever it is taken by the afformatives 9 and $\urcorner$, and hence it affects the final vowel in precisely the same manner as these do. E. g.


In a very few instances $\pi$ - takes the place of $n$ - (according to § 27 , Rem. 4), e. g. 1 Sam. xxviii. 15 ; Ps. xx. 4. As rarely is it attached to the third person (Is. v. 19 ; Ez. xxiii. 20; Ps. xx.4). The second person, however, receives it in the Imperative. See No. 5.
$\Pi_{-}$denotes, as accusative ending to a noun, motion or tendency towards a place ( $\$ 88,2$ ); and after the same analogy, the Cohortative with this ending expresses effort and the direction of the will to an action. Accordingly it is used especially to express excitement of one's self, determination, wish (as Optative), \&c. (see §126).
4. The Jussive occurs only in the second and third persons. It has several modifications of form, which will be described in treating of the conjugations in which it is found. In the regular


 consists in the removal (apocope) of the ending - - ; e. g. . יגְּלֶM. (The name Future apocopated, derived from the mode of forming it in verbs "ל) is applied generally to this form of the Future.) But in all cases the plural forms of the Jussive coin-
cide with the common, only that the ending $\dagger$ cannot occur. Also the second pers. sing. f. sounds like תַּקְשִׁיִליִ, \&c.

In signification this form is similar to the other, with some modification occasioned by difference of person. In general it expresses command and wish ( $£ 126$ ).
5. The persons of the Imperatiye, as it is allied in form and meaning to the Future, are also lengthened (by $\pi_{-}$) and shortened, in a manner perfectly analogous. So also the Arabic has an Imperativus energicus. In most conjugations only one of these forms is found, in others both are employed. The lengthened Imp. occurs, e. g. in Kal of the regular verb, as in in

 The signification of these forms is not always so strongly marked as in the Future. The longer form, however, is often emphatic,


## Sect. 48b.

## PRETERITE AND FUTURE WITH VAV CONVERSIVE.

1. The use of the two tenses, as will more clearly appear in the Syntax ( $\$ \mathbf{~} 124,125$ ), is by no means confined to the expression of the past and the future. One of the most striking peculiarities in their use, and. indeed, in the Hebrew diction generally, is this: that in continued narrations of the past, only the first verb stands in the Preterite, the others being in the Future form; and, on the contrary, in continued descriptions of the future, the first verb is in the Future, while the rest are in the Preterite form. Gen. i. 1: In the beginning created (Pret.) God the heavens and the earth. 3 v . And said (Fut.) God, Let there be light, and there was (Fut.) light. 4 v. And God saw (Fut.), \&c. Just the reverse in Is. vii. 17 : Jehovah will bring (Fut.) upon thee, and upon thy people, and upon thy father's house, days, such as have not come since, \&c. 18 v . And it will hap-
 (Pret.). This progress of time, this succession of thought, is usually indicated by the Vav copulative, which however in this case, partly, receives itself a somewhat different form, and partly
affects the form of the Preterite and Future to which it is prefixed.*
2. The Vav conversive of the Future is the most important. This a) is regularly prefixed with Pattach and a Daghesh forte in the next letter, as לuppland he killed, but to the first person sing. with Qamets (according to $\S 22,1$ ), as [see another exception with Daghesh $f$. omited, as ויַּ, in $\S 20,3, b] ; b$ ) it takes a shortened form of the Future, when that exists (comp. $\$ 48,4$ ), e. g. in Hiphil (1) Rem. 4), and often at the same time draws the tone back to the
 (and he died), $\S 71$, Rem. 4. $\dagger$ Yet it is often, particularly in the later books, prefixed to the first person sing. with the lengthened
 in $\$ 126, b$.

In the former editions [all but the 13 th] of this Grammar, another view of this Vav was preferred, viz. that it is a shortening of the verb was) and is prefixed to the future in order to express the tense of narration.
 the contrary, that the copula (conjunction) lies in the Var, for 1) this Future with Vav always conjoined to what precedes stands before the noun, as
 (the thresholds) shook . . . . and the house was filled with smoke, iii. 16; 2) it never stands after the relative and the conjunctions, which exclude and ( changed for a simple ?; see Is. lix. 16 ; com. ch. Ixiii. $3,5,6$, and also in the same sentence, as in Is. xliii. 28. Though 4) it often stauds at the beginning of entire sections and books, yet this only proves that they are sequels of a former narrative (as in Ex. i. 1 and Ezra i. 1), or at least conceived to be such (as in Ruth i. 1 and Esther i. 1). The simple 9 begins the 1st
 probability.

It is better, therefore, to consider as merely a strengthened form of

[^67] are strengthened in a similar way), in the sense of and then, and so.

The shifting back of the tone is found also in similar connexions, like
 dentally similar to the form of the Jussive, just as its lengthening is to the form of the Cohortative.
3. As the opposite of the above, we have Vav conversive of the Preterite, which joins Preterites to a foregoing future. In form it is the usual Vav copulative ( 7 ), e. g. רְִ (רְדָ (after a Fut.) and it will be; yet it has generally the effect of shifting the tone to the last syllable in those verbal forms which would otherwise
 a Fut. preceding) and $I$ will go, Judges i. 3 ; יִּ $\operatorname{Co}$ Pret., Mand it shall divide, Ex. xxvi. 33. See more on the use of the Preterite in § 124.

This shifting forward of the tone does not always take place, and the exceptions are sometimes strange.
 verbs ※゙\} and ה゙3.

Sect. 49.

## OF THE PARTICIPLE.

1. Kal has two forms of the Participle, viz.; an active, called also Poël, and a passive or Pa-ul ( bly a remnant of a lost passive form of 2 .

In the Aramæan the passives of Piel and Hiphil are in like manner lost, except in the participles.
2. The participle active of Kal is connected, in its formation, with the third person of the Preterite, from which it is distinguished only by the longer vowel of the noun-forms, thus: :
 the Participle that most commonly occurs in verbs middle $A$, deviates from this form and takes that of has sprung from $\hat{a}$, qôtel from qûtel ( $£ 9$, No. 10, 2). The form

[^68]Sưt is in common use only as a verbal noun. Compare the mode of forming the Participle in Niphal ( 83,1 ); that of Piël, Hiphil, Hithpaël follows a different method.
3. Participles form their feminine and plural like other nouns ( 890,91 ).

Rem. 1. An unfrequent form is
 1 Chron. xxvii. 30. Many reckon here also =ọin Is. xxix. 14; xxxviii. 5, but this is much rather 3 sing. fut. Hiphil of 50. construction Is. xxviii. 16. The Cholem in 3 .
 explained by $\S 29,3, b$.
2. The participle in the passive form has not unfrequently an active signification, especially when it belongs to an intransitive verb, which cannot take a passive meaning. Compare in English aged, flown. Thus
 Ps. cxii. 7. Comp. the deponent verbs in Latin.

## B. DERIVED CONJUGATIONS.

Sect. 50.

## NIPHAL.

1. The full characteristic of this conjugation is the syllable (in the corresponding seventh conjugation in Arabic : ִִ) prefixed to the ground-form. It appears only in the Inf. constr.

 In the Pret. the (less essential) He has been suffered to fall away, and only Nun remains as the characteristic, hence same applies to the Participle, which is distinguished from the
 The inflexion of Ninhal is perfectly analogous to that of Kal.

Niphal may be distinguished in the Pret. and Part. by the Nun profixed; in the Imp., Inf., and Fut. by the Daghesh in the first stem-letter. The same marks are found in the irregular verbs; except that where the first stem-letter is a guttural, Daghesh forte must be omitted ( $\$ 62,4$ ). To compensate for this omission, the preceding vowel is made long ( $\$ 22,1$ ).
2. Significations of Niphal. It has similarity to the Greek middle voice, and hence a) It is primarily reflexive of Kal, e. g.
 one's self; often in verbs which express passion or feeling, as

To to trouble one's self, to grieve, to bemoan one's self, to bewail ; comp. ò $\delta \dot{\cup} \rho \varepsilon \sigma \vartheta a l$, lamentari, contristari. b) Next it fre-
 other at law ; ָיָּ to counsel, Niph. to consult together ; comp.
 cari, luctari, proeliari. c) It has also, like Hithpaël (\$53.3, c) and the Greek Middle, the signification of the Active with the addition of self, for one's self, e. g. بְשְָׁאל to ask for one's self

 tive, the remote object (usually expressed by the dative) lies in the idea of the conjugation. d) It is often also passive of Kal, e. g. ָּ to bear, Niph. to be born; likewise of Piël and Hiphil, when Kal is intransitive or not in use, e. g. כָּ to be in honour, Niph. to be honoured, to destroy, Niph. passive of both: and in this case its meaning may again coincide with Kal (חָָּּ Kal. and Niph. to be sick) and even take an accusative ( $\$ 135,2$, Rem. 1).

Examples of denominatives are; בִּ T

The older Hebrew Grammarians have represented Niphal as the proper Passive of Kal. This representation is decidedly incorrect; for Niphal has not the characteristics of the other passives. There are still found in Kal traces of an early passive form ( $\$ 49,1$ ), and the Arabic has an independent conjugation, corresponding with Niphal (inqatala), which has its own Passive; nay, in Hebrew itself there is probably a trace of the Passive of Niphal in the form 3 ַㅕㄹ, Is. lix. 3; Lam. iv. 14. According to the usage of the language, the passive signification is certainly the predominant one; but it was first derived from the reflexive. The ? prefixed has the force of a reflexive pronoun, like $\underset{\sim}{\text { in }}$ in Hithpaël.*

Rem. 1. The Inf. absol. to which it bears the same relation as $3 \dot{3} \dot{\sim} p_{\tau}$ to $3 \underset{\sim}{*} p_{T}$. It is the only Infinitive of this kind. Examples of this form, לִשׁׁ rogando 1 Sam. xx. 6, קַּ desiderando Gen. xxxi. 30; of the other, שׂำ̣ exaudiendo Ez. xiv. 3. The $i$ in the final syllable (which is essentially long), this Infinitive form has also in Piël and Pual, and it resembles, in this respect, several Arabic Infinitives, in which there is a corresponding $a$.

[^69]2. In Pause, Pattach often takes the place of ' T'sere in the final syllable; e. g. 2p: p. 80). In the second and third persons plural feminine, the form with Pattach is more common than that given in the Paradigm, e. g. הָּ they shall be remembererl, Is. Ixv. 17.
3. When the Fut., or the Inf., or the Imp. is immediately followed by a word of one syllable, the tone is commonly drawn back upon the penultima, and consequently the final syllable, losing the tone, takes Seghol instead of

 xxi. 14 ; xxiv. 25. In a few worde, this form with the retracted tone has become the constant one; as רִּ fought, Numb. xxi. 1.
4. A frequent form of the 1 Pers. is 1 ºwne as Ez. xiv. 3, צִxup I swear, Gen. xxi. 24. Comp. \& 68 , Rem. 5.

## Sect. 51.

## PIEL AND PUAL.

1. The characteristic of this conjugation (Arab. Conj. II. qattala, Aram. קֵּטל) is the doubling of the middle stem-letter.
 formatives retain their original $\mathrm{Sh}^{e} \mathrm{va}$ ) are formed, according to the general analogy, from the Inf. and Imp. קַטּ. The Passive (Pual) has more obscure vowels, and its Infinitive is of the same form with the Preterite. In other respects the Active and Passive follow the same analogy. In the inflexion of the Preterite of Piël, Pattach takes the place of Tsere in the first and second
 the form perp. See Rem. 1.

The $\Rightarrow$ which occurs also in the succeeding conjugations as the characteristic of the Part. may be derived from who? in the sense of some one.

Pièl and Pual are throughout distinguished by the Daghesh in the middle stem-letter. It is omitted only in the following cases:- $a$ ) Always when this letter is a guttural $(\$ 63,3)$. b) Sonietimes, though rarely, when

 at times indicated ( $\$ 10,2$, Rem.) by a Chateph under the littera dages-
 xvi. 16. In the Fut. and Part. the Sheva under the performatives may always serve as a mark of these conjugations.
2. Significations of Piël. a) It denotes intensity and repetition (comp. the Nomina intensiva and iterativa, which are
also formed by doubling the middle stem-letter, $£ 83,6-9)$; * e.g. קָּקָ to laugh, Piël to sport, to jest (to laugh repeatedly); ; ask, Piël to beg ; hence it denotes that the action is performed upon many, as to bury (one), Gen. xxiii. 4, Piël to bury (many), 1 K. xi. 15. (So in Syriac frequently.) This signification of Piël is found with various shades of difference, as to open, Piël to loose; סָפ to count, Piël to relate. With the eager pursuit of an object is connected the influence which the subject of it exerts upon others. Hence, $b$ ) It has á causative signification (like Hiphil), e. g. לָּמָּ to learn, Piël to teach. It often takes the modifications expressed by to permit, to declare
 ? to assist in child-bearing. c) Denominatives are frequently found in this conjugation, which in general mean to make a thing (sc. that which the noun expresses), or to be in any way
 dust, away or injuring the thing or part of which the noun is the name (as in English to behead, to slin, to bone), e. g. யִׁu゙ (from
 to injure the tail, hence to rout the rearguard of an army ; ?ִּים T to remove the ashes. So also in verbs whose origin cannot be traced to a noun, e. g. Op to stone, and also to remove the stones: sc. from a field. $\dagger$

The significations of the Passive will present themselves spontaneously, e. g. בגָּ to steal, Piël to steal, Pual to be stolen.

In Piël the proper and literal signification of a word is. often retained when Kal has adopted a figurative one, the former being the stronger and more prominent idea. E. g. אפָּרָ in Piël to stitch up, in Kal to heal; ארָ

[^70]Pièl to cut, to hew out, Kal to form, to make; הלָּ Piel to uncover, Kal to reveal.

In intransitive verbs also, Piēl occurs as an intensive form, but only in
 to be drunken, Is. xxxiv. $\overline{5}, \boldsymbol{\%}$.
N. B. Rem. 1. The Pret. Piell has frequently ( - ) in the final syllable instead of (..), e. g. Ṇּ to destroy, to break in pieces. This occurs especially before Maqqeph (Eccles. ix. 15; xii. 9) and in the middle of a period, when other words immediately follow; but at the end of a period, Tsere is the more common vowel. Compare 3 Is. xlix. 21 with 3 Jos.
 atone,

A single instance of ( - ) in the first syllable (after the manner of the Chaldee) is found in Gen. xli. 51, בְּ to cause to forget, occasioned by the play upon the name מֶֶּׁ, Compare the quadriliteral which is analogous, in form, with Piêl (§ 55).
2. The Fut., Inf., and Imp. when followed by Maqqeph, generally take


 xxvi. 33 (on account of the long vowel following), and Zech. vii. 14 (according to §23, 4, Rem. 2). With Vav conv. we have also לovex for
 e. g. Is. xiii. 18; Ezek. xxxiv. 14.
 cxviii. 18; and in Pual, is used, e. g. Jer. xii. 17; xxxii. 33.
4. In Pual, instead of Qibbuts is found less frequently Qamets-chatuph; e. g. Еְֶֶּּ dyed red Nah. ii. 4 ; comp. iii. 7; Ps. xciv. 20. It is merely an orthographic variation when Shureq takes the place of Qibbuts, as 7294 Judges xviii. 29.
5. The Part. Pual sometimes occurs without the prefix $\underset{3}{ }$; it is then distinguished, like the Part. Niph., only by the Qamets in the final syllable, e. g. חקָּ Taken 2 Kings ii. 10 ; comp. Judges xiii. 8, also Eccles. ix. 12; Hos. i. 6, 8.

Sect. 52.

## HIPHIL AND HOPHAL.

1. The characteristic of the Active is $n$ with $(-)$ or $(-)$ prefixed to the stem, and ${ }^{4}$ - inserted in the final syllable. From the

 same form with the 3 pers. sing. Preterite; and in its other forms it follows the general analogy. The inflexion has nothing pecu-
liar, except that in the 1 and 2 pers. Pret. the $"$ falls away and
 by the analogy of the Aramæan (אֵקַטְ), and of the Arabic (אֵקטְ), where the - - is not found. It does not appear to be an essential characteristic of the form, but it has arisen out of a shorter vowel. See Rem. 1.

The marks of this conjugation are, therefore, in the Pret., Imp., and Inf., the prefix $\boldsymbol{\pi}$; in the Fut. and Part., the vowel under the preformatives, which in Hiphil is Pattach, in Hophal Qibbuts or Qamets-chatuph.
2. Significations of Hiphil. It is properly causative of Kal, and in this sense is more frequently employed than Piël ( $\$ 51$, 2, b), e. g. איָ to go forth, Hiph. to bring out of, to lead forth; שָּ takes two accusatives ( $\$ 136,1$ ). Frequently Piël and Hiphil are both in use in the same signification, as to perish, Piël and Hiph. to destroy; but generally only one of them is found, or they have some difference of signification, as in to be be heavy, Piël to honour, Hiph. to make heavy. Intransitive verbs merely become transitive, e. g. פָָה to bow (intrans.), Hiph. to bow (trans.).

The causative and transitive signification of Hiphil is employed, in accordance with a mode of conception familiar to the Hebrew, for the expression of ideas, which other languages express by intransitive verbs. Especially was any change in one's habit of body conceived_(and very rightly too) by the Hebrew as the result of personal agency, and was represented, in the mode of expression, as produced by the individual himself,* e.g. Hiph. to become fat (properly to produce fat); ; ָָּ and Hiph. to become strong (properly to develop strength); מַָָּ Hiph. to become feeble. The same analogy applies to עָׁux Hiph. to become rich (properly to make, to acquire, riches); also especially to words which express the taking of a new colour, as Moreover, what is merely state or condition, becomes in the Hebrew mode of conception, an act, e. g. winn not to be silent, but properly to keep silence (silentium facere, Plin.); צַּ long (one's stay), to tarry. In such cases there is often an ellipsis, as
 (sc.

[^71]These remarks apply also to Denominatives, i. e. the verb often expresses the idea of producing or putting forth that of which the original noun is the
 presses the actual use of a member, as to tisten (properly to make ears); : make tongue, to use the tongue freety).
The signification of Hophal, as of Niphal, may sometimes coincide with that of Kal, e. g. ריֹל potuit, Fut. Hoph. potens fiet, i. e. poterit.

Rem. 1. Only the Preterite of Hiphil retains always the ${ }^{4}$ - of the final syllable (in 3 p . sing. and plur.) ; on the contrary, the Inf., Imp., and Fut. frequently take Tsere instead of it (in Chaldee the usual form), although usage generally makes a distinction between forms with $\bar{\imath}$ and $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$. Tsere is in this case only tone-long, and hence in the lengthening of the forms it becomes vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va, and with gutturals it is changed into Pattach.
2. The Inf. absol. has generally Tsere, with and without Yodh; as winn Judg. xvii. 3; הַשְׁבֵּיד Amos ix. 8. Strictly Chaldee, with $\mathbb{x}$ instead of the $\boldsymbol{\pi}$, is $=$, exceptions, in which the fornt with Tsere stands for the Inf. constr, are found in Deut. xxvi. 12; xxxii. 8.
3. The Imp. but seldom takes the form המקזים (Ps. xciv. 1 in pause, perhaps also Is. xliii. 8); instead of it are employed the shortened and the
 attend! The first takes Seghol before Maqqeph, as
N. B. 4. In the Fut. of Hiph. the form with Tsere for the jussive is the
 xii. 4, especially with 9 convers, as 3ne he divided Gen. i. 4. Before
 xix. 4. In the plural (after the manner of the Aramean) it sometimes


5. The fornt of the Part. with (..) in the Sing. is doubtful (Is. liii. 3);
 2 Chron. xxviii. 23, are derived fron this form. The fem. is $\mathrm{F}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{i}}=$, e. g. שַׁug Lev. xiv. 21. Comp. Gen. xxxv. 8.
6. In the Pret. are sometimes found the forms we wave reproached 1 Sam. xxv. 7, and comp. Job xvi. 7.
7. In the Fut. and Part. the characteristic $n$ regularly gives place to the

 than that of the preformatives. To both rules there are some few excep-

 to fuinl, 1 Sam. ii. 33 ; comp. Is. xxiii. 11; Ps. Lxxviii. 17.
N. B. 8. The tone, in Hiphil, does not fall on the afformatives 1 , $n-$,
and -. They take it, however, in the Pret. when Vav conversive is pre-

9. In the Passive (Hophal) Pret., Fut., and Part. $\check{u}(\checkmark)$ is found in the first syllable as well as o (r), , but not so often in the regular verb,
 xx. 21, and (according to $\$ 9,9,2$ ).
10. The Inf. absol. is distinguished by (..) in the final syllable; e. g.
 as given in the Paradigm, there happens to be no example in the regular verb.

## Sect. 53.

## HITHPAEL.

1. This conjugation connects itself with Piël, inasmuch as it
 which, like הִ in Niphal, has undoubtedly the force of a reflexive pronoun, perhaps of the same origin as the particle $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ self $(\$ 115$, 2, Note).
2. The $\Omega$ of the syllable $\boldsymbol{n}$ affers the following changes:
a) When the first radical of the verb is a sibilant $(\boldsymbol{0}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\Psi})$, it changes places with $\Omega(\S 19,5)$, as דִשְׁnem to take heed, for
 over, the transposed $\Omega$ is changed into the more nearly related
 tion in Jer. xlix. 3.)
b) Before 7,2 , and 5 , it is assimilated $(\$ 19,2)$ e.g. החדֵּ


 self ready. Once before $\urcorner$, Is. xxxiii. 10 .
3. The significations of Hithpaèl. a) Most frequently it is

 farther it means: to make one's self that which is expressed by the first conjugation : hence, to conduct one's self as such, to show one's self, to imagine one's self, to affect, to be such ; properly to make one's self so and so, to act so and so. E. g. הִחקְּנְּ to make one's self great, to act proudly, הִחְחֵַּּ to show one's

[^72]self cunning, crafty, also, Eccles. vii. 16, to think one's self
 cation sometimes coincides with that of Kal, and both forms are in use with the same meaning, e. g. אָּבֵל Kal to mourn, is found only in poetry; Hithp. in the same sense, is more common in prose, and even takes an accusative ( $\$ 135,2$, Rem. 1). b) It expresses reciprocal action (like Niph. \& $50,2, b$ ), as look upon one another Gen. xlii. 1. More frequently c) It expresses what one does indirectly to or for himself (comp. Niph. $\$ 50,2, c$ ). It has then an active signification, and governs an

 one's self (ambulare). Only seldom d) It is passive, e.g. . to be numbered, mustered, Judges xx. 15, 17, xxi. 9. Comp. Niphal. \& $50,2, d$.

The passive Hothpaal is found only in the few following examples,

 with fat.

Denominatives with the reflexive-signification are: דִחְיוֵר to embrace
 ply one's self vith food for a journey, from צֵיךָּ.
N. B. Rem. The Preterite, as in Piêl, has frequently Pattach in the final syllable, as ${ }^{\text {andinn }}$ to be strengthened, 2 Chr. xiii. 7; xxi. 4. Final Pattach occurs also in the Inf., Fut, and Imp., as יִחּחn he deems himself

 ( $\$ 51$, Rem. 2) comp. Hithp.

## Sect. 54.

## UNUSUAL CONJUGATIONS.

Of the unusual conjugations ( $\$ 40,2$ ) some are connected, in form, with Piël, and are made by the doubling or the repetition of, one or more stem-letters, or by the insertion of a long vowel, i. e. by changes within the stem itself; others are analogous to Hiphil and are formed by the addition of prefix letters or syllables. To the former class, besides a passive distinguished by the vowel in the final syllable, belongs also a reflexive form with the prefix תְ, , after the analogy of Hithpaël.

Those which are analogous to Piël, and which follow it in their inflexion, are:-1








Its signification, like that of Piël, is often causative of Kal. Sornetimes both are in use in the same signification, as $\gamma$ צیin and 10 oppress; sometimes each has its peculiar modification of meaning, as 3 op to turn about, to change, foolish (from to be brilliant, but also to be vain-glorious, foolish); ; to make pleasunt,

With pita is connected the formation of quadriliterals by the insertion of a consonant at the end of the first syllable, as
 ? of permanent states or conditions, e.g. of colours, as to be at rest,隹 to be green, Pass. to be witherel; ; of these verbs there is no exa mple in Kal. It is more frequent in verbs ${ }^{4}$ ", where it takes the place of Piêl and Hithpaël ( $\$ 71,7$ ).
3. Pealal; as 3-2 especially of slight motions repeated in quick succession; e. g. . go about with quick motiom, hence (of the heart) to palpitute, Ps. xxxviii. 11, from to go about; Puss. To to ferment with violence, to make a rumbling sound, Lain. i. 20. Nouns of this form are diminutives ( $\$ 83,23$ ). Nearly related to this is
4. Pilpel, formed from verbs $\begin{gathered}\text { yin } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { y } \\ \text { by doubling both of the essen- }\end{gathered}$ tial stem-letters; as סִבְּ from also is used of motion rapidly repeated, which all languages are prone* to express by repetition of the same sound, as


## With Hiphil are connected :

5. Tiphel ; as
 xxii. 15 (from tom to be ardent, eager). The Aramæan has a similar form ถมาุุำ to interpret.

[^73]6. Shaphel; as לֵּ

In Heb. it is found only in the noun $\underset{*}{\text { a }}$
Forms of which single examples occur:-7. קum, pass.

 (frequent in the Rabbinic), a form compounded of Niphal and Hithpaël, found in the examples


We may mention also,-10. the form monly derived from the stem $\boldsymbol{\square} \boldsymbol{\square}$. But it is probably a denom. from הצדּ a trumpet, an onomatopoetic form like the old Latin taratantara $=$ tuba. Ennius apud Servium ad Æn. 9, 526.

## SECT. 55.

## QUADRILITERALS.

Of the formation of quadriliterals we have already spoken ( $\$ 30,3$ ). The few verbs of this kind (of nouns there are more) are formed after the analogy of Piël, once after Hiphil. The following are all the examples that occur : -

Pret. פַּרְׁׁi he spread omt, Joh xxvi. 9 (with Pattach in the first syllahle,
 to become green again, Jub xxxiii. 25. Purt. לมีำ. girded, 1 Chr. xv. 27.
 from לexiex), Gen. xiii. 9 and other places.

## C. REGULAR VERB WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.*

Sect. 56.
The accusative of the Pronoun which follows a verb active may be expressed 1) by a distinct word, (the sign of the accusative) with the suffix ( O 101), as incis (he has lilled him);
 The second method is the usual one, and it is only of it we now treat. $\dagger$

This matter embraces two points, viz., the form of the suffix, and the changes in the verbal form in consequence of appending it. The former is cxhibited in $\vdots 57$, and the latter in $8558-60$.

[^74]
## Sect. 57.

## THE SUFFIX OF THE VERB.

1. The suffixes appended to the verb express the accusative of the personal pronoun ; and they are the following :-

Singular.




## Plural.

1. comm.


2. These suffixes clearly are, for the most part, shortened forms of the personal Pronoun, and only some of them require explanation.

In the suffix of the second person $(\pi, \square$,,$\overbrace{\nabla})$ the basis appears to be a lost form of the pronoun with $כ \dagger$ instead of $ת$
 guish the suffixes from the afformatives of the Preterite ( $\$ 44,1$ ).

In the third person masc. out of $\mathrm{m}_{-}$by rejecting the feeble $h$ there arose $\bar{u}-u$, and thence $\hat{o}(\S 7,1)$, usually written $\urcorner$, much more seldom i. In the fem. the suffixes from whought, according to analogy, to sound $\underset{\sim}{T}, \underset{\sim}{-}, ~ \underset{\sim}{-}$, but instead of $\overbrace{-}$ we have, for the sake of euphony, simply $\Pi_{-}$where the $\pi$ is regularly a consonant and therefore marked with Mappiq.

3. The variety in the forms of the suffixes was occasioned by

[^75]the regard had to the form and tense of the verb which received them. Thus three forms of almost every suffix may be distinguished:
a) One beginning with the consonant itself, as $\square, \& c$. This is appended to verbal forms which end with a

b) A second and a third with the so-called union-vowels* (בִי, --), for the verbal forms which end with a consonant: with the union-vowel $a$ for the forms of the Preterite, as קְ קְ


 fix it the same holds good as of $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{T}}$ from which it comes. With $\bar{\pi}, \square$ चֶ, $\begin{array}{r}\text { ֶֶ } \\ \text { the uniting sound is only a half-vowel (rocal }\end{array}$
 the final consonant of the verb is a guttural, ₹-, e. g. . In Pause this Shiva becomes a Seghol with the tone, $\mathbb{T}$.
Rem. 1. As rare forms may be mentioned: Sing. 2 pers. $m$.
 cxxxvii. 6, and in the later Psalms frequently. ( $7-$ - contrary to the rule appended to the Pret. in Judges iv. 20.)-In the 3 pers. masc. if Ex. xxxii. 25; Num. xxiii. 8: fem. $n-$ without Mappiq Num. xv. 28; Jer. xliv. 19.The forms in, in-, in- are strictly poetic (except. Ex. xxiii. 31); instead of iz we find tz once in Ex. xv. 5. On the origin of these forms see §32, Rem. 7.
2. By comparing these suffixes of the verb with the suffixes of the noun ( $\$ 89$ ) we discover: $a$ ) There is here a greater variety of forms than there (because the forms and relations of the verb are themselves more various); b) the verbal suffix, where it differs from that of the noun, is longer, as 4!, $?$-, $?-(m e)$; - (my). The reason is, that the object of the verb is less closely connected with it, than the possessive pronoun is with the noun: on which account also the former may even be expressed by a separate pronoun ( $\$ 119,3$ ).
4. The suffix gains still more strength, when instead of the union-vowels there is inserted a union-syllable :-, :- (commonly called Nun epenthetic, but better Nun demonstrative), which, however, occurs only in the Future and in pause, e. g.


[^76]$m e$ (Ps. l. 23). This Nun is, however, for the most part incorporated with the suffixes, and hence we have a new series of forms, namely,

1 pers.
2 pers.
3 pers. TT: ;

1 pers. plur.
In the other persons this Nun does not occur.
Rem. The forms with Nun distinctly written are rare, only poetic (Jer. v. 22), and do not occur at all in 3 fem. sing. and 1 plur. The contracted forms (with the Nuin assimilated) are rather frequent, especially in pause.

This Nun is of a demonstrative nature, and belongs to the appended accusative of the personal pronoun, to which it serves to direct attention as to the object of the verb. In Chaldee besides the Nun there is also inserted a Yodh with consonant power, in Samaritan a $y$ is appended also to the Preterite, and in similar cases a $n$ inserted.

Sect. 58.

## THE PRETERITE WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

1. The endings (afformatives) of the Preterite have in part a different form, when connected with the suffixes. Namely:
a) In the 3 sing. fem. $\Omega_{-}, \Omega_{-}$, the original feminine ending, for $\pi_{-}$;
b) 2 sing. masc. besides $\underset{\sim}{\text { nut }}$ also to which the union-vowel is attached, but the only clear instance of it is with
c) 2 sing. fem.隹 tinguished from the first person sing. only by the context.
d) 2 plur. masc. ${ }^{\text {N }}$ for as, which is explained by the Arabic

 but probably it took the same form as the masculine.
We exhibit, first, the forms of the Preterite in Hiphil as they appear in connexion with the suffixes, because here no further change takes place in the stem itself, except as to the tone (see No. 2):

2. The tone inclines towards the appended suffix, so that it never remains on the stem itself. And this occasions, particularly in the Preterite of Kal, certain vowel changes, in consequence of which we have in it the following forms:

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 3 c. |
| 3 f . |  |
|  | 2 m . |
|  |  |
| 1 c. | 1 c. |

These forms are exhibited in connexion with all the suffixes in Paradigm C. It will be seen there too, how the Tsere in Piël changes sometimes into Seghol and sometimes into vocal $S h^{e} v a$.

 the others, and hence are called grave suffixes. They always have the tone, and cause in the 3 m . sing. of Pret. Kal a greater shortening than the
 greater effect in the case of nouns ( $\S 89$ ).
2. In the 3 sing. masc. to $£ 23,5$, and so likewise in the 2 sing. masc. .
 a) constantly draws the tone to itself; except with $\bar{\square}$ and $\rceil$ (see Rem. 1), and then takes the suffixes that make a syllable of themselves ( $?$
 $3, a) ; b$ ) with the other suffixes it takes indeed the union-vowel, but draws the tone back on the penultima, so that they appear with shortened vowels


 without pause, for the sake of correspondence in sound, 算解? (she has borne thee) in the same verse (Cant. viii. 5). The forins are contr. from ( 857,4 ).
4. In the 2 sing. masc. union-vowel, except in searchest me Ps. cxxxix. 1, but also In the 2 sing. fem. חִּ is written also defectively iv. 9; Ex. ii. 10 ;.instead of it the masc. form is also used (fem.) adjurest us Cant. v. 9; Jos. ii. 17; and with Tsere
 xiii. 5 , with a shortened $o$ in a syllable that has loat the tone:

## Sect. 59.

## FUTURE WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

In the forms of the Future which end with the last stemletter, the vowel $a$ of the final syllable is shortened generally to simple Shéva vocal ( - ), at times to Chateph-Qamets $(-)$ Jer.
 of תִּקְלְל: i. 6 ; Jer. ii. 19 ; Job xix. 15. The form with Nun demonstrative ( $\$ 57,4$ ) is apt to be used at the end of the clause or period.
N. B. Rem. 1. Verbs with Fut. A (to which belong all that have a guttural for the third radical) retain the full $\boldsymbol{A}$ in the $\boldsymbol{F}$ ut. and Imp.; and the Pattach, when it comes to stand in an open syllable, is lengthened into
中ีּ Mixip let them demand it back Job iii. 5.
2. Occasionally, as exceptions, suffixes occur also in the Fut. with the union-vowel $a$, as
3. The suffixes are at times appended also to the plural forms in ${ }^{7}$, e. g. vowel
4. In Piël the Tsere of the final syllable, like the Cholem in Kal, becomes



 enrichest it Ps. Ixv. 10; 1 Sam. xvii. 25. Comp. § 52, Rem. 4.

Sect. 60.

## INFINITIVE, IMPERATIVE, AND PARTICIPLE WITH SUFFIXES.

1. The Infinitive of a verb active can be construed with an accusative, and then it takes the verbal suffix (i. e. the acc. of

[^77]the personal pronoun), as prep to kill me; but as nown it can take also the nominal suffix (the genitive), as my killing (see $\S 130,1$ ). In either case it assumes the form קָׁ segholate nouns of the form ( $\$ 91$, Paradigm VI.).
 xix. 33 , like nouns of the form $\mathbb{U}$ T.




2. What has been said of the Inf. applies also to the leading form שָׁנ שִׁל presented in the Paradigm, suffer no change. For the fem.
 On
3. In the Participles the shortening of the vowels is the same as in nouns of the like form, e. g. קֹשֵּל, according to ; 91, Parad. VII.

On the difference between "

## II. OF THE IRREGULAR VERB.*

## A. VERBS WITH GUTTURALS.

Sect. 61.
Verbs which have a guttural for one of their three stem-letters are governed, in their deviations from the regular verb, by the general principles laid down in $\delta 22$. Of course $\mathbb{\Sigma}$ and $\pi$ come under consideration here only when they retain their power as consonants; 7 also partakes only in part of these anomalies $(\$ 22,4)$. For convenient representation, we distinguish the cases in which the guttural is the first, second, or third stemletter. 'The Paradigms D, E, and F, in which those conjugations which are wholly regular are omitted, exhibit their inflexions, and the following sections explain them more fully.

[^78]
## Sect. 62.

## VERBS PE GUTTURAL. E. g. to stand. Parad. D.

The deviations from the regular verb are as follows:-

1. When the first stem-letter, at the beginning of the word, requires a simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{va}$ ( of the composite Sh $^{\mathrm{e}}$ vas ( $\$ 10,2 ; \AA 22,3$ ), e. g. Inf.

2. When a preformative is prefixed to such forms, it takes the
 dream, ワjoswn he will gather ; or the composite Sh ${ }^{\text {e va conforms to }}$ the vowel of the preformative, when the latter is an essential characteristic of the form; e. g. Pret. Niph. (for
 Pret. הָּעָּד, Fut. (On the Methegh in these forms see \$16, 2, a.)

In many verbs, however, the guttural, especially $\pi$, when it stands after a preformative at the end of a syllable, retains the simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\circ} \mathrm{va}$; but in this case the preformative always has the vowel corresponding to the composite $\mathrm{Sh}^{e} \mathrm{va}$, which the guttural




The Grammarians call this the hard, the former with the comp. She ${ }^{e}$ a the soft combination. Both forms often occur in the same verb. -
3. When in forms like syllable becomes a simple Sheva vocal, on the addition of a sufformative ( $7,{ }^{-}-\Pi_{-}$), the composite $S^{e}{ }^{e} v a$ of the guttural is exchanged for its short vowel, as יַעַמְדָ (speak y ̆ üm dhü); ; sides a harder form, as

4. In the Inf., Imp., and Fut. of Niph., where the first stem-
 always omitted, and the vowel of the preformative is lengthened


## Remarks.

## I. On Kal.

1. In verbs $\mathbb{N} \boxminus$ the Inf. constr. and $\operatorname{Imp}$. take $(-\bar{n})$ under the first letter

 when the tone is forcibly thrown torward; e. s. . For the same reason we have win

In the other forms also of the Imp. the guttural often exerts its influence upon the vowel, which it changes to Seghol, as Job xxxiii. 5, especially when the second radical is also is guttural, as

2. The Fut. A, as the Parad. showe, has regularly under the first two letters - - ; and with the hard combination $-\frac{1}{\pi}$, as he ceases, he is wise. This is also true of those verbs which are at the same time $\operatorname{Hin}^{2}$
 found also in verbs Fut. $O$; as $\bar{\square}$ is the form $\overline{2}$ Mg and she loves Ez. xxiii. 5 . . In these forms the pointing $\bar{m} \bar{m}$ is frequently shortened to $\bar{\square}($ according to $\$ 27$, Rem. 5) ; as


## II. On Hiphil and Hophal.

3. The rule given in Rem. 2 respecting $\bar{m}$ and $-\frac{\pi}{r}$ applies again here in the Pret. after Vav conversive; i. e. the throwing forward of the tone occasions a change of $\varepsilon^{e}$ into $a^{a}$, as thou will set, Num. iii. 6; viii. 13; xxvii. 19; ${ }^{4}$ תִּ
4. In the Pret. of Hiph. $\overline{\pi_{n}}$ is sometimes changed into $-\frac{1}{-}$, and $-\pi$ into $\frac{-}{7}$ in Hoph. Pret. by prolonging the short vowel, which was sus-
 Nah. ii. 3 .

## III. In General.

5. In the verbs to live, and to be the guttural is treated as such in very few forms; Fut. indeed true of these verbs, hence ning ; but so soon as a letter is prefixed, the first radical drops the peculiar pointing of the guttural, as miniti?, ninhe,


## Sect. 63.

VERBS AYIN GUTTURAL. E. g. ขñשָ่ to slaughter. Parad. E.
The deviations from the regular verb are not so great as in the former class, and are mainly as follows:*

1. Where a simple $S h^{e} v a$ is required, the guttural takes without exception the composite She ${ }^{e}$ ( 1 ). E. g. Pret. .


[^79]under the first radical, conforms to the Chateph of the second; as

So in the Inf. Kal. fem., as to love, wancincin to languish.
2. As the preference of the gutturals for the $A$ sound has generally less influence on the following than on the preceding
 retained, but also, for the most part, the Tsere in Fut. Niph. and
 conversive) רִיִּקָּחֶ. But in the Fut. and Imp. of Kal the last syllable generally takes ( ) , through the influence of the guttural,
 (seldom as יִּיְּ) ; and in the Pret. Piël also, Pattach occurs more frequently than in the regular verb, as מִדחב.
3. In Piël, Pual, and Hithp., the Daghesh forte of the middle stem-letter cannot stand; but in the greater number of examples, particularly before $\pi, \pi$, and $\ddagger$, the preceding vowel remains short, the guttural having Daghesh forte implicitum ( $\$ 22,1$ ).

 monly prolonged, and always before 7, as Piël to refuse,
 adultery.
Rem. 1. In Piell and Hithp. the tone is sometimes drawn back upon the
penultima, and the Tsere of the final syllable shortened to Seghol; viz. a)
Before a word of one syllable (according to $\S 29,3, b$ ), as
order to serve there Deut. xvii. 12, comp. Gen. xxxix. 14; Jnb viii. 18. b)
After Vuv conversive, as $\overline{7}$
drove oul Ex. x. 11, comp. Gen. xxxix. 4.
2. The following are unfrequent anomalies in the Pret. Piell: : then
delay Judges v. 28 for
Ps. li. 7 for

## Sect. 64.

VERES LAMEDH GUTTURAL. E. g. שָּ to send. Parad. F.

1. According to $\S 22,2, a$ and $b$, we here distinguish two cases; viz. either the regular vowel of the final syllable remains, and the guttural takes Pattach furtive, or the full vowel Pattach takes the place of the regular vowel. The more particular state. ment is as follows:
a) The strong unchangeable vowels $-\uparrow, 7(\{25,1)$ are always

 firm is also retained in the Inf. constr. tinguish it from the Imp. (as in verbs y guttural).
b) The merely tone-long $O$ in the Fut. and Imp. of Kal be-
 Rem. 1.)
c) Where Tsere is the regular vowel of the last syllable, the forms with final Tsere and final Pattach are both employed. Usage, however, makes a distinction in these forms. Thus:
 full Pattach first appears in the constr. state

In the Fut. and Inf. Niph. and in the Pret. Inf. and Fut. Piell, the form with ( - ) is employed at the beginning and in the middle of a period, the one with -- at the end, and in Pause. E. g. . it is diminished Num.
 11; sta to swallow Hab. i. 13; Num. iv. 20. It may further be observed that the Inf. absol. retains T'sere, which is lost in the Inf. constr. E. g. Exut. xxii. 7, else

In Miph. the shortened forms of the Imp. and Fut. admit only (-) e. g. הַּנְ

2. The guttural here has simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va whenever the third radical regularly takes it (because it is $S h^{e} v a$ quiescent, which

 place, as and 1 Kings xiv. 3.

- The softer combination with composite $\mathbb{S h}^{e} v a$ occurs only $\left.a\right)$ In some examples of the 1 plur. Pret. when the tone is thrown forward, as we know thee Hos. viii. 2; comp. Gen. xxvi. 29. b) Before the suffixes 7 , ■รู, 誛, as Ker. xviii. 2.


## B. CONTRACTED VERBS.

SECT. 65.

## VERBS 捎. E. g.

*The irregularities of these verbs, arising from the feebleness of the nasal letter Nun, are as follows:

1. The Imp. and Inf. constr. often lose (by aphæresis, $\S 19,3$ ) their Nun, which would here take Sh ${ }^{e}$ va, as for Inf. then, however, has regularly the feminine ending $\frac{\square-}{-}$, or, with a guttural, $5 \div(879,2)$, as The Imp. has usually Pattach; but also Tsere, as give (from זָּחן give up.
2. Whenever Nun, after a preformative, stands at the end of a syllable, it assimilates itself to the following stem-letter ( $\$ 19$, 2, a) : viz. a) in the Fut. Kal, e. g. לפ? he will fall for ? שיִ regular verb, most common, the Fut. $E$ only in this example*);
 Hiphil and Hophal (which here has always Qibbuts), e. g.


The other forms are all regular, e. g. Pret. Inf. absol. Part. Kal, Piël, Pual, \&c. Only those conjugations which are irreguar are included in the Paradigm $H$.

The characteristic of these verbs in all forms which begin with a formative letter, is the Daghesh forte following it in the second radical. Some
 ( 866,5 ), exhibit the same appearance. Verbs ${ }^{\frac{1}{Z}}$ likewise exhibit such forins of the Imp. as

Rem. 1. The instances are comparatively few in which the forms men-
 Inf. where 7 ? 7 ). In Niph. this never occurs, and in Hiph. and Hoph. very seldom, as It regularly occurs, however, in all verbs which have a guttural for their second stem-letter, as יִ? he will possess. In these verbs the Nim rarely
 comforted himself.
N. B. 2. These anomalies are in part exhibited by the verb re? to take, whose 3 is treated like the Nun of these verbs ( $\$ 19,2$ ). Hence, Fut. ח®?,
 ever, is always $\Pi_{E}$ ? ? ?
N. B. 3. In the verb $\begin{gathered}\text { נn } \\ \text { to give, the final Nun is also assimilated, as }\end{gathered}$

[^80] suff.

Sect. 66.

## VERBS $\Sigma^{n}$ צ. E. g. סָּב. Parad. G.

1. The principal irregularity of these verbs consists in the contraction of the second and third radicals often into one double

 are not contracted which contain unchangeable vowels, or a Daghesh forte, as סטוֹבֵב , סָבּוֹב.
2. The monosyllabic stem thus obtained takes, throughout. the vowel which the full form would have had in its second syllable, and which in the regular verb characterizes the form ( $\$ 43$,
 (comp. No. 6).
3. The Daghesh forte, which, after this contraction, properly belongs to the final stem-letter, is excluded from it ( $\$ 20,3, a$ ), except when formative additions are made at the end, as

4. When the afformative begins with a consonant $(2, \pi)$, a vowel is inserted before it in order to render audible the Daghesh of the final stem-letter $(\$ 20,3, b)$. This vowel in the Pret. is


The Arabian worites indeed regularly מדדת, but pronounces in the popular language מדית madī̄̀, also, according to Lumsden, maddata, which last is exactly analogous to the Hebrew inflexion.*
5. The preformatives of Fıt. Kal, Pret. Niph., and of Hiph. and Hoph., which in consequence of the contraction stand in a


[^81]vowel of the regular form, the corresponding long one ( $\$ 27,2, a$ ).

 long vowel (except the in Hophal) is changeable.

There is still another mode of constructing these forms (the common one in Chaldee), which supplies a Daghesh in the first radical in place of



 letter; but see omit also the vowels i and $\urcorner^{7}$, e. g. ?ִּ Parad. exhibits this furm by the side of the other in Fut. Kal.
6. Of many of these contractions, however, the originals are not found in the regular verb, but they may be considered as ancient analogous forms. Thus ביָּ under the preformative, as in the regular Arabic form $; \dagger$ Hiph. הִסְפּב has in the contracted stem-syllable the shorter and more original ē (like the Aram. אַקְ comp. \& 52, 1 and Rem. 1);
 §50, Rem. 2.
7. The tone has this peculiarity, that it is not thrown forward upon the formative syllables beginning with a vowel $\left(\pi_{-}, 7,7\right.$, comp. §44, Rem. 5), but remains before them on the stem-syllable, as $\mathfrak{Z E}$. $\ddagger$ Before the other afformatives, it rests upon the inserted syllables $i$ and $\because$ (with the exception of $\square \%$ and $7 \pi$, which always take the tone), and in consequence the vowels of the word are shortened, as
8. Instead of Piël, Pual, Hithp., and in the same signification, is found in numerous verbs of this kind, the unfrequent conjugation Poël ( $\$ 54,1$ ), with its Passive and Reflexive, e. g.



[^82] are inflected regularly like Piël．

## Remarks．

## I．On Kal．

1．In the Pret．are found some examples with Cholem（comp．3ヶワ，$\S 43,1$ ），


2．The Cholem of the Inf．，Imp．，and Fut．（ $\because \dot{\circ}$ ，コ்்），as a changeable vowel，is written defectively，with a few exceptions，which are found espe－
 viii．11．It is consequently shortened into Qamets－chatuph or Qibbuts， whenever it loses the tone，as Inf．-7 to rejoice ，Job xxxviii．7，with suff．ipha when he founded Prov．viii．27，Imp． Vav convers．פיָּפָּ Judges xi．18，with suff．he lays them waste Prov． xi． $3, Q^{e}{ }^{\text {ri．}}$
 ing are examples；Imp．Tim to stoop Jer．v．26，3 roll Ps．cxix．22，Fut． רֵַּ he is bitter Is．xxiv．9，he is slighted Gen．xvi．4，5．Examples of



4．In the Participle occurs the Aramæan form שix for oiti Jer．xxx．16， $K^{e}$ thibh．

## II．On Niphal．

5．Besides the most usual form with Pattach in the second syllable，as given in the Paradigm，there is still another with Tsere，and another with Cholem（analogous with 3 シャッ ， whole conjugation．E．g．Pret．${ }^{2}$ ？
 Cholem they are rolled together Is．xxxiv．4，Inf．Absol．הָּ to be plundered Is．xxiv．3，Imp．הֵרּ take yourselves up Num．xvii．10，Fut．

 est（from กกูู）．

## III．On Hiphil and Hophal．

6．Besiden Tsere the final syllable has also Pattach，especially with gutturals，as הַמַּ；Inf．הָּר to cleanse Jer．iv．11．But also without a guttural，as 2 Kings xxiii．15，Plur．הֵּ shadowing Ez．xxxi． 3.

7．The Future with retracted tone takes the form he protects $\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{s}}$ ． xci．4． 3 มֶin

8．Chaldaizing forms of Hiphil and Hophal：ב．
 for＂

## IV. In General.

9. Verbs y y are very nearly related to verbs (\%71), as appears even from the similarity in their conjugations, which are parallel throughout. In

 the Ful. convers. of Kal and Hiphil, in Hophal, and in the unfrequent conjugations. On account of this relation, they have sometimes borrowed forms from each other, e.g. .
10. Along with the contracted forms there are found, especially in certain conjugations and tenses, others which are wholly regular. E. g. Pret. Kal.

 Me he woll rejoice (which is never contracted), Part. מְִַּיִ astonished Ez. iii. 15. Sometimes the full form appears to be emphatic (Ps. cxviii. 11).
11. We have seen ahove (No. 5), that in the Fut. of the Chaldee form, the Daghesh of the third radical, together with the preceding vowel, is omitted before afformatives, as 1 . 1. . Of the same omission in other forms there are unquestionable examples, as נָּ Gen. xi. 7 for




12. Although the afformatives here do not attract the tone (see No. 7, p. 133), yet it is thrown on them when suffixes are appended, as Ps. cxviii. 11. The vowels suffer before Daghesh the changes pointed out in §27, 1, viz. Cholem in the Fut. becomes Qibbuts, less frequently Qametschatuph, Tsere in Hiph. becomes Chireq (after the analogy of

 Ez. xlvii. 2.

## C. FEEBLE VERBS (VERBA QUIESCENTIA).

Secti 67.
FEEBLE VERBS $x^{\prime \prime}$. E. g. .
So far as $\mathbb{N}$ is treated as a consonant and a guttural, these verbs have all the properties of verbs $P e$ Guttural exhibited in §62. But here we regard them only in so far as the $\mathbb{N}$ quiesces, i. e. loses its consonant-sound, and is blended with the foregoing vowel, which happens only in certain verbs and forms, as follows :-

1. In the Fut. Kal of five verbs, viz.,
 quiesces in a long ô (Cholem), as דیּズ. In some others, the
form in which it retains its power as a consonant is also in use, as ruption of the vowel $a(\$ 9,10,2)$, which is itself derived by contraction from $=$ or $\overline{\#}$. The feebleness of these verbs $(\$ 41, c)$ affects also their last syllable, so that it reccives instead of the stronger vowel $\bar{o}$ an $\bar{e}$ ( Tsere), particularly with distinctive accents at the end of a period or clause; but with conjunctive accents, which mark the continuance of the discourse, it takes $\check{a}$
 i. 6 (comp. a similar exchange of $\bar{e}$ and $\breve{a} \S 64,1, c$ ). When the tone moves back, the last stem-syllable has sometimes Pattach, as םin sometimes Seghol, as but (Milra) with distinctives (only in Job a few times า

Very seldom does $\mathbb{x}$ in the Fut. Kal, quiesce in Tsere, as
 dicendo (Inf. with 3 ), for $-\times \times \underset{\sim}{2}$.
2. In the 1st Pers. sing. Fut. the radical $x$ (to avoid the repetition of this letter) is regularly dropped ( $\$ 23,4$ ), as for 7nsis I will say.

Except in this case the radicel x seldom falls away, as non for nown
 cxxxix. 20, ,

The Parad. I shows the forms in which $\mathbb{N}$ is treated as a quiescent (namely, Fut. Kal), and merely indicates those in which it retains its character as a guttural.
 Hiph. לצֵּ הַתָּיו . bring ye Is. xxi. 14.



Sect. 68.
FEEBLE VERBS NALLY ${ }^{\text {首。 }}$

Verbs ${ }^{n}{ }^{n}$. are divided principally into two classes, which are wholly different from each other in their origin and inflexion.

The first embraces those verbs which have properly a 9 for their first stem-letter. In Arabic they are written with 9 (e. g. יָּ, Arab. walada) ; but in Hebrew, by a difference of dialect, they take ${ }^{n}$ instead of it, wherever the first radical is the initial letter. The second embraces those which are properly ${ }^{2}$, and which have Yodh also in Arabic ( $\$ 69$ ). A few of these verbs ${ }^{7}$ 粦 form, in some respects, a third class inflected like verbs ( $\$ 70$ ).

In $\mathfrak{7 x}$, are contained two verbs, distinguished both by form and signi-
 Fut.
The peculiarities in the inflexion of the first class, which is analogous with the Arabic ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, are the following :

1. In the Fut., Imp., and Inf. constr. of Kal there is a twofold form. About the half of these verbs have here the feeblest forms, namely,

Fut. בֵּר with a tone-lengthened $\bar{e}$ in the second syllable, which may be shortened to Seghol and vocal $S h^{c} v a$; and with a somewhat firmer $\bar{e}$ in the first syllable, which in a degree still embodies the first radical ${ }^{\text {? }}$ that has fallen away;
Imp. בשׁ from iְ in by omission of the feeble ?, and
Inf. ending - , which again gives to the form more length and body.
The other half of these verbs are inflected with stronger forms, have the Fut. A and retain the Yodh at the beginning, namely in

Imp. יְּרְ

That the latter mode of inflexion belongs to verbs actually ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ (which has been often overlooked and falsely denied) is shown, partly by the numerous verbs which take these forms in Kal, and at the same time have 1 in Niphal, Hiphil, and Hophal; partly by the analogy of the Arabic, where the verbs 倡 have precisely the same double inflexion.

Even in the same verb are found both forms, one with Yodh, the other




To the first mode of inflexion belong, e. g. רָּר, to bear,

syllable on account of the guttural); to the second belong $\min ^{\circ}$ to weary,

2. The original Vav appears always in Niphal, Hiphil, and Hophal. It quiesces in the Pret. and Part. of Niph. and throughout Hiph. in Cholem, throughout Hophal in Shureq, as
 Imp. and Fut. Niph., 4 remains as a consonant, and the inflex-
 sonant in the Hithp. of some verbs, e. g. רָדָע , רחתורַדַּ from, and in
 guilty].
3. The other forms, with few exceptions (see Rem. 3, 4), are regular.

In those forms in which Yodh does not appear, these verbs may be distinguished, in the Fut. of Kal by the Tsere under the preformatives; in Niph., Hiph., and Hoph., by the Vav ( $\ddagger, 4,7$ ) before the second radical. Forms like $\mathcal{Z}$ the same form as in verbs $\begin{aligned} \text { y } \\ \text { and } \\ \text { and }\end{aligned}$

Rem. 1. The Inf. of Kal without the radical Yodh (see No. 1) has very seldom the masculine form like to know Job xxxii. 6, 10 , or the feminine ending $\boldsymbol{T}$ לָדָה to bear 2 Kings xix. 3. With a guttural the latter takes the form $n-$ instead of $n=$, e. g. $\pi$, 1 Sam. iv. 19 is contracted to $\Gamma 3(\$ 19,2)$. Examples of the regular full
 form has seldom the feminine ending, as
2. The Imp. Kal. often has the lengthening $\pi_{-}^{-}$, as ait, descend. From בָּ to give the lengthened Imp. is in incon, fem. plur. "TֶT, with accented Qamets, owing to the influence of the guttural.
3. The Fut. of the form $=$ nex takes Pattach in its final syllable when it has a guttural, as צּדำ, also Jer. xiii. 17. When the tone is drawn back upon the penultima, the final syllable takes Seghol, namely, before a word of one syllable and after Vav conversive. E. g. אָּ
 which a Fut. of this kind is written fully, is Mic. i. 8. The form Unרִ when lengthened can also lose its radical ", as lxv. 23. Ye the cases are rare and doubtful where this occurs after other preformatives than " (see Is. xliv. 8).
4. In some stems the feebleness affects also the Pret. Kul, so far that the $a$ under the second radical becomes $\bar{e}$ or $\check{z}$, as from ய்ทำ, viii. 1 ; xix. 1 ; xxvi. 1; Ps. lxix. 36, \&c. In Syriac $e$ is here predominant; in Hebrew the feeble vowel is found only in such forms of the Pret. as have no full vowel under the first radical.

and he waited Gen. viii. 12; comp. Ex. xix. 13. The first Pers. sing. has

6. In Piël the radical Yodh sometimes falls away after preformative, which takes its punctuation (comp. §67, Rem.2). E.g. and he dried it up Nah. i. 4.
7. Fut. Hiph. like Fut. Kal, takes Seghol when the tone is drawn back,

N.B. 8. The verb class, for it forms (as if from 구) Fut.
 Hiph. .חרוֹל?. Rarely and almost exclusively in later books and in poetry,
 (Num. xxii. 14, 16; Eccles. vi. 8, 9), Imp. pl. רִלְּ (Jer. Ii. 50); on the
 Hithp. ${ }^{7}$. obsolete stem $\bar{\square}$ used as דָּ the feeble letter may itself be treated like ${ }^{4}$, and so the inflexion resemble "פּ. Comp. also the feeble $火$ "פ, e. g. from
 2 Kings vi. 16 from

Sect. 69.
FEEBLE VERBS ${ }^{\text {n. }}$. SECOND CLASS, OR VERBS PROPERLY פֶ.
E. g.

The most essential points of difference between veibs properly ${ }^{10}$ and verbs

1. Kal has only the stronger of the two forms described in $\$ 68,1$, namely, that in which the radical 'remains, Inf. יְטֹ,
 Seghol when the tone shifts back, as $\uparrow$ and he awoke Gen. ix. 24, יִיצֵ, ,
2. In Hiphil the ${ }^{5}$ is retained and is pronounced as a diph-
 with the diphthong ai, ay, as in iv. 25 ; comp. Ps. v. 9, Q $^{{ }^{\ominus} r i}$.

The following are the only verbs of this kind: עיָ


Of the Fut. Hiph. there is an anomalous form with preformatives put
 Is. xv. 2; lxv. 14; Jer. xlviii. 31; Hos. vii. 14; also יריחִּי Job xxiv. 21; and once even in Fut. Kal. יויוּ, Ps. cxxxviii. 6 from This anomaly
is explained by supposing, that the of the simple form was superficially taken to belong to the stem.

Sect. 70.

## VERBS THIRD CLASS, OR CONTRACTED VERBS

The ' of these verbs does not quiesce in long $\bar{i}$ or $\bar{e}$, but is assimilated like 2. Some verbs are exclusively of this class, e. g.
 up, Fut. .יצִ. Hiph. Others have two forms; in one the ' is assimilated, in the other it quiesces, as ריָּ to pour, Fut. קצ?

 ( 1 Sam. vi. 12).

Verbs of this class (which seldom occur) are inflected like verbs ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$, for which they may easily be mistaken by the learner. When therefore a form has not a root $i^{n}$ in the Lexicon, he should look for one of this class.

## Sect. 71.

## FEEBLE VERBS צ゙ . .E. g. to rise up. Parad. M.

1. In these verbs the middle stem-letter 9 always quiesces; not merely in the more usual cases ( $\$ 24,1$ ) when a Sh ${ }^{e}$ va precedes or follows, as ceded and followed by a full vowel, as Part. Pass. for Para; קוp Inf. absol. for lable.
2. The vowel in which 9 quiesces is essentially the vowel of the second syllable, which, in the verb, almost universally characterizes the form ( $\$ 66,2$ ). But this vowel, in consequence of the union of the Vav with it, is mostly made fuller, e. g. Inf. and
 for we have


The verb intransitive middle $\boldsymbol{E}$ takes in Pret. Kal the form of (from


3. The preformatives in the Fut. Kal and Pret. Niph. and throughout Hiph. and Hoph., which before the inonosyllabic stem form a simple syllable, take instead of the short vowel of
the regular form the corresponding long one（827，2）．E．g．


This vowel is changeable，and becomes $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e}}$ va when the tone is thrown forward，e．g．before Suff．：ְhen he will kill him，and with the full plural form of the Fut．

The is Hoph．is the only exception．But this conjugation is formed （in appearance）by transposing the letters of the original stenı．Thus becomes by transposition
4．In some cases，forms of the regular verb not now in use lie at the foundation of those of which we are treating．E．g．Fut．
 \}ữ, comp. $\$ 49,2, \S 83$, No．1）．Those which conform to the regular Hebrew verb，are generally the most unfrequent．as שi゙ユ （after the form יִבְׂu）．The $o$ in Niph．comes from $v a(=u a)$ ，


5．In the Pret．Niph．and Hiph．the harshness of pronun－ ciation in such forms as הֵקַמְמָת ，הְקוֹמְמָּ，is avoided by the inser－ tion of 4 before the afformatives of the first and second person． For the same purpose ${ }^{-}-$is inserted in the Fut．Kal before the termination（comp．§66，4）．These inserted syllables take the tone and shorten the preceding vowels，as an


Yet in some cases the harder forms without the inserted syllable，are also in use．Thus Fut．Kal

 only
6．The tone，as in verbs $y^{\sharp y}$ ，is not thrown forwaid upon the afformatives $\pi_{-}, 7, \square$ ，as $\begin{aligned} & \text { ，} \\ & \pi\end{aligned}$ form ？？？？ epenthesis（see Rem．6），the accentuation is regular，as $\underset{\sim}{\text { spenpen }}$ ；so


7．The conjugations Piël，Pual，and Hithpaël are very sel－ dom found in verbs properly 7 ．${ }^{2}$ ．The only instance in which 7 remains as consonant is עִ to surround，the Piël of עיד（yet see Rem．5）．In some others＂has taken the place of ？，as in from חִחהב ，קוּם from which forms belong to the later He－ brew，having been borrowed from the Aramæan．On the con－

[^83]trary, the unfrequent conjugation Pilel ( $\$ 54,2$ ), with its Passive and Reflexive, is the common form employed in the signification of Piël and as a substitute for it. E. g. to to raise up, from
 one's self, from עוּר. Less frequent is the conjugation Pilpel


Of these unusual conjugations the Parad. exhibits only Pilel and Pulal, from which the Reflexive (Hithpaël) is readily formed.

## Remarks.

## I. On Kal.

N.B. 1. Of verbs middle $E$ and $O$, which in the regular verb also have their Pret. and Part. the same ( $\$ 49,2$ ), the following are examples; viz. Prel. ת (for
 terite and Participle, the usual form $\boldsymbol{o p}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ is very seldom written with $\times$ (after
 comp. xvi. 57.
2. In the Inf. and Imp. of some verbs, 9 always quiesces in Cholem, as אim, בīu, רix. In most verbs, however, it quiesces only in Shureq; but even in these the Inf. absol. has in in final syllable (after the form לivp), as $\boldsymbol{\text { añ aip surgendo surgent Jer. xliv. 29. Those verbs which have i }}$ in the Inf. retain it in the Fut., as אi=ף. . In one verb alone the preforma-

3. In the Imp. with afformatives ( tima, with a few exceptions as in Judges v. 12. The lengthened form [with
 with a few exceptions where the word is Milel (Ps. vii. 8; Jer. iii. 12; xl. 5).
N. B. 4. The shortened Fut. as Jussive $(\$ 48,4)$ has the form epi (very
 him not return Ps. lxxiv. 21; ninit that he may die 1 Kings xxi. 10. In poetic language as Indicative, as Eị̆, ロiņ , he, it shall be high, Num. xxiv. 7 ; Micah v. 8. After Vav conversive, and before words of one syllable, the tone is also drawn back upon the penultima, and the last syllable
 the tone remains on the last syllable, as ming ; comp. Gen. xi. 28, 32, with v. 5, 8. With a guttural or a Resh, the final syllable may take Pattach, e. g. ${ }^{\text {Mo }}$

The full plural ending thas the tone (according to No. 6 of this sec


## II. On Niphal.

5. Anomalous forms are : Pret. ם yencitixave been scattered Ez. xi. 17; xx. 34, 41, 4í; Inf. constr. חָח? Is. xxv. 10. Comp. Rem. 9.

## III．On Hiphil．

6．Examples of the Preterite without the epenthetic i： Ex．xx．25；הֵטַּחָּה Thou killest，and even num．xvii．6，\＆c．

7．In the Imp．the shortened and lengthened forms both occur．

N．B．The shortened Fut．has the form away Ex．x．17．After Vav conversive the tone is drawn back upon the
 a guttural or Resh takes Pattach，as in Kal，e．g．וָיָּ Gen．viii． 13.

## IV．In General．

8．On account of the intimate relation between verbs $4 \mathbb{y}$ and $5 \mathbb{y}$ ，it is necessary，in analyzing forms，to note particularly the points in which these classes differ．Several forms are exactly the same in both，e．g．Fut．Kal with Vav conversive；Pilel of 4 and Poell of 5 צix．Hence it is that they often borrow forms from one another，as in Kal he despised（Pret．of际ב，as if from

9．In common with verbs $\Psi$（ $\S 66,5$ ），those of this class have in Niphal and Hiphil the Chaldee and Rabbinic punctuation，which substitutes for the long vowel under the preformatives，a short one followed by Daghesh forte．This form and the common one are often both in use．E．g．חִִִּ to incite，Fut． xxii． 33 （and צָּ Prov．xii．26）；sometimes with a difference of significa－ tion，as הֵּ down；$\ddagger$
 cised Gen．xvii．26，27；xxxiv．22，with a guttural his＇Zech．ii．17；Hiph．


Here belong some forms of verbs $P e$ guttural with Daghesh forte im－ plicitum，which have generally been derived from a false root，or been uncritically altered；viz． xxxi．5，ジ

10．Verbs whose middle stem－letter is Vav moveable（i．e．sounded as a consonant）are，in respect to this letter，perfectly regular．E．g．$\urcorner$ 꾸 to be white，Fut．


Sect． 72.

## VERBS צ＂．E．g．

1．These verbs have the same structure as verbs ixy，and their ${ }^{n}$ is treated in the same manner as the 1 of that class．E．g．

 But the Pret．Kal has，in several verbs，still a second set of
forms, which resemble a Hiphil with the characteristic in elided,
 2, ถָּבֹי רִּ thou contendest Job xxxiii. 13, also רַבְּ Lam. iii. 58.


 Pret. $\uparrow$ T~. Moreover as Passive we find a few times Hoph. Fut.

2. These Hiphil forms may easily be traced to verbs "ע, and possibly they in part belong strictly to that class. The same may be said of Niph. הּבָּ , Pil. (as if from $7=12$ ). Thise verbs are in every respect closely related to verbs 1 " . Hence it is that we find several verbs used promiscuously, as 7 "y and "y, and with the same meaning in both forms,

 of the two is the predominant form, as to exult ( only in Prov. xxiii. 24). But few are exclusively ע, as to to contend, to to set, to rejoice.

The older Granmarians did not recognise this class of verbs, but referred all its forms to verbs $\frac{1 \pi}{3}$, which may indeed be right in some cases. In modern Arabic we find an exactly corresponding abbreviation of the Hiphil (Conj. IV.) of verbs ${ }^{*}{ }^{*}$. Yet the Arabic, as also the ※thiopic, has actual verbs "y, and the Hebrew has some with Yodh as consonant, like ביָּ wan Mr A fluctuation and interchange between the closely related stems must certainly be assumed.

The Paradigm $N$ is placed in connexion with that of verbs $\Psi$ to exlubit the parallelism of the two classes. The conjugations which it omits have the same form as in Parad. $M$.

Rem. 1. Examples of the Inf. absol. are litigando Judges xi. 25, n\# ponendo Is. xxii. 7, also ריב Jer. 1. 34.
2. The Fut. apoc. is Judges vi. 31. So with Vav conversive, perceived.
3. As Part. act. Kal we find once ${ }^{\dagger}$ ל spending the night Neh. xiii. 21;

4. Verbs $\mathbb{N}$ scarcely ever suffer their $\mathbb{N}$ to quiesce, and hence are irregular only as represented in \& 63. Yet in the Prel. of the much used verb
 closed syllable to $(-)$ and $(-)$, when the syllable is toneless and no full vewel precedes the $\mathcal{\aleph}$ (just as in some verbs " ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, $\S 68$, Rem. 4), e. g. with

 Hiph. 1 Sam. i. 28. Comp. §44, Rem. 2.

Sect. 73.

## VERBS ${ }^{\prime \prime}$. E. g.

The $\mathbb{N}$ is here, as in verbs $\mathbb{*}$ "פ, treated partly as a consonant with a soft guttural sound (scarcely audible at the end of a word), partly as a quite inaudible (quiescent) letter, according to the following rules:

1. In those forms which end with the third radical, the final
 המשְּיא ; but Pattach before the feeble letter $\mathbb{N}$ is lengthened into Qamets ( $\$ 23,1$ ), viz. in the Pret. Fut. and Imp. Kal, in the Pret. Niph., Pual, and Hoph. The ( + ) however is mutable ( $\$ 25,2$, Rem.), hence in the plural

The Fut. and Imp. Kal have $A$, after the analogy of verbs Lamedh guttural.
2. Also before afformatives beginning with a consonant ( $\pi, 5)$ * is not heard, but is quiescent in the Pret. Kal, in Qamets, מָּ̦ נִמְּגָּא; in the Imp. and Fut. of all the conjugations, in Seghol,


The use of Tsere and Seghol in these forms arose doubtless from the great resemblance between verbs $\mathbb{N B}^{* 3}$ and ${ }^{n} 3$ (comp. $\delta 74,2$ ), and an approximation of the former to the latter.

Before the suffixes $\bar{T}, \square \underset{\sim}{c}, \eta_{z}$, the $\mathbb{N}$ retains its character as a guttural,
 Rem. The reason (as in verbs Lamedh gutural) is, that those suffixes require before them a half.vowel.
3. Before afformatives beginning with a vowel, $x$ is a consonant and the form regular, as מעּקוֹא.

Parad. $O$ gives a complete view of the inflexion.

## Remarks.

1. Verbs middle $\boldsymbol{E}$, like

 (after the form $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$



 back in the manner of the Syriac.

 xxxii. 35.

See more in the Remarks on verbs $\mathfrak{H 3}$, No. VI.
Sect. 74.

## 

These verbs, like those "פ ( 9868,69 ), embrace two different classes of the irregular verb, viz. "ל and it , which in Arabic and specially $\mathbb{E t h}$ iopic are clearly distinguished. But in Hebrew the original ${ }^{\natural}$ and $\dagger$ have passed over into a feeble $\pi(\$ 23,3)$, in all those forms which end with the third radical, and which hence are called verbs
 these verbs are originally " 2 ; only a few forms occur of verbs " The two classes are therefore less prominently distinguished than verbs

 (Arab. (yy) to answer, and (עָנָ (Arab. to suffer, to be oppressed, are two verbs originally distinct, but with the same form in Hebrew (see Gesenius's Lex. art. הצָּ). In Syriac the intermingling of these forms is carried still farther, verbs $\kappa^{\prime 3}$ also being confounded with those ${ }^{\text {King }}$, i.e. with the two classes i" and ${ }^{4} 3$ of the Arabic.

Wholly different are those verbs whose third stem-letter is a consonantal $\pi$ (distinguished by Mappiq); e.g. M. They are inflected throughout like verbs Lamedh guttural. It is certain, however, that some verbs in originated in verbs with final $\bar{n}$, this letter having lost its original strong and guttural sound, and become softened to a feeble n, e. g. הָָּ施 to be blunt. Hence it is that verbs in ל are often related to those for which the verb and $n$ to be hard ; קָּת
The grammatical structure of these verbs (which Paradigm $\mathbf{P}$ exhibits) is as follows:

1. The original Yodh or Vav, in all forms which end with the third radical, gives place to $\pi$ as a vowel-letter and representing the final vowel ; which is the same in each form through all the conjugations, namely,
$\pi_{-}$in all the Preterites，

$\pi_{-}$in all Imperatives，
$\pi-$ in the Inf．absol．（except in Hiph．and Hoph．），cibs，\＆c．
The Part．Pass．Kal forms the only exception，in which at the end the original ${ }^{4}$ appears，${ }^{\text {，}}$ ，as also in some derivatives （ $884, \mathrm{~V}$ ）．

The Inf．constr．has always the feminine form in $\Omega$ ；hence in Kal nibl ，in Piël nitu ，\＆c．

In explanation of these forms we observe：
That in the Pret．Kal，
 （ $\$ 51$ ，Rem．1），Hiph．on the form aqtala（§ 52,1 ）．
 whence also are such plural forms as true of the other conjugations，all of which，even in the regular verb，have， in connexion with the usual form，another with Pattach in the final syllable． See § 50 ，Rem． $2, \S 53$ ，Rem．

The use of Tsere in the Imp．may be explained on the ground，that as the form is shorter than in the Fut．the tone falls more strongly upon the final syllable，and therefore requires the support of the stronger vowel Tsere． Compare the construct state of nouns in $\pi-\neq \S 87,2, c$ ．The Cholem of the Inf．absol．is the regular vowel．

2．Before the afformatives beginning with a consonant（ $\Omega, \mathrm{y}$ ）， the original remains，but not as a consonant．Properly it would here form with the foregoing $\breve{a}$（Pattach）the diphthong $a i$ ；but this diphthong in the Pret．is contracted first into $\hat{e}(--)$ and then farther attenuated into $i$ ，but in the Fut．and Imp．it is changed into the obtuse ${ }^{-}-$．Thus in Pret．Piël，from （after קִשַׁלְת $i$ 令 always retained，in the Actives of the derived conjugations and in the Reflexives both $\hat{e}$ and $i$ are used alike（see Rem． 8 and 12）；on the contrary in Kal（the most used of all the species）we find only $i$ ．Accordingly we have in the

Preterite Kal $i$ ，as
Preterites of the other active conjugations and also the re－ flexive promiscuously $\hat{e}$ and $\bar{i}$ ，as
Preterites of the Passives only $\hat{e}$ ，as $\boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{T}}$ ；
Futures and Imperatives always ${ }^{\square}-$ ，as

The diphthongal forms are throughout retained in Arabic and ethiopic， and the diphthong is contracted only by way of exception and in the popu－ lar idiom．In Chaldee and Syriac the contracted forms predominate，yet these dialects have in Kal $\mathrm{min}_{1}$
3．Before the afformatives beginning with a vowel（ $4, n^{4}-$ ， $T_{-}$），the Yodh with the foregoing vowel usually falls away，
 ancient full forms，particularly in pause，as יִּקוּק and 11）．Before suffixes also it falls away，as 7ל⿱亠䒑𧰨斤（Rem．19）．

4．The Yodh disappears also in 3 Pret．sing．fem．，where $\Omega_{-}$is appended as feminine ending，as $\overbrace{\text { ．}}^{\boldsymbol{T}}$ ．But this ancient form is become rare（see Rem．1）；and as if this mark of the gen－ der were not sufficiently distinct，a second feminine ending $\pi_{-}$is appended，so as to form ans ing ．So in all conjugations，e．g．


See analogous cases in § 69，Rem．，§ 89， 3.
5．The formation of the shortened Future，which occurs in this class of verbs in all the conjugations，is strongly marked， consisting in the casting away（apocopé）of the $\pi$ ，by which still other changes are occasioned in the form（see Rem．3，7， 9，14）．The shortened Imperative is also formed by apocope of the 7 （Rem．10，15）．

## Remarks．

## I．On Kal．

1．For the 3 Pret．fem，the older and simpler form Fibs，from nub （comp．the verb $\mathbb{x}^{3}$ ，§ 73，Rem．1），is almost entirely banished from com－ mon use．One instance is
 is always used，see Rem． 19.

2．The Inf．absol．has also the form $\mathfrak{\text { n videndo Gen．xxvi．23．As the }}$ Inf．constr．occurs also，though seldom，שֶׁט Gen．1．20，רְאֹה xlviii．11，as
 letter $b$ ．

N．B．3．The apocope of the Fut．occasions in Kal the following changes：
a）The first stem－letter most commonly receives the helping－vowel Seghol， or，when the middle radical is a guttural，Pattach $(\S 28,4)$ ．E．g． 3 ？

b）The Chireq of the preformative is also sometimes lengthened into Tsere （because it is now in an open syllable），as $\times \underset{\sim}{\text { n }}$ let him see from －
c) The helping-vowel is sometımes omitted, especially in the cases men-
 has the two forms and the Resh.
d) Examples of verbs which are $P e$ guttural (§57) as well as Lamedh $H e$ : צעׁ times the punctuation of the first syllable is not affected by the guttural;
 Job iii. 6.
e) The verbs to be, and to tive, which would properly form in
 the Yodh prefers a vowel before it in which it may quiesce (conıp. the derivatives


The full forms without the apocope of $n-$ sometimes occur even after Vav. conv., especially in the 1st person and in the later books, e. g. רָׁרֶ and I saw, twenty times but not in the Pentateuch, הự in and he made, four times.
4. The original ${ }^{4}$ is sometimes retained before the afformatives beginning with a vowel (comp. No. 3, above), especially in and before the Pause, and before the full plural ending tith, or where for any reason an emphasis rests upon the word. Pret.
 quently like
5. The Part. act. has also a fem. of the form spying Prov. xxxi. 27, Part. pass. is sometimes without ${ }^{4}$, as xv .22.
6. Seldom is the second syllable defectively written, as 2 Sam.


## II. On Niphal.






## 1II. On Piël, Pual, and Hithpaël.

8. In the Pret. Piell, the second syllable has Chireq instead of the diphthongal ${ }^{4}$ - in the greater number of examples, as ? therefore adopted in the Paradigm. Before suffixes Chireq is always employed, e. g.
9. The Fut. loses, after the apocope, the Daghesh forte of the second stem-letter (comp. § 20, 3, a); hence Piël Less frequently is the Pattach then lengthened into Qamets, as 1 Sam.

10. In Piell and Hithp. are found also apocopated forms of the Imp., as

11. Examples of Yodh retained in cases where more commonly it is omitted: Fut. "גִּ Ex. xv. 5.

## IV. On Hiphil and Hophal.

 common; before suffixes the latter is used as somewhat shorter than the other. In Hoph. always ${ }^{4}$-.
13. The Tsere of the Inf. absol. Hiph. is the regular vowel (as in הیּק to this the Inf. absol. Hoph. conforms, as in רֶבֶה to be much, has three forms of the Inf., viz., הַרֶּ much (used ad-
 Comp. Gen. xli. 49 ; xxii. 17 ; Deut. xxviii. 63.


 Ps. cv. 24. Examples with gutturals: Sysy Num. xxiii. 2, \}yiv, \&c., which can be distinguished from the Fut. Kal only by the signification.
15. The Imp. apoc. has invariably the helping-vowel Seghol or Pattach,


 from

## V. In General.

17. In the Aramæan, where, as before remarked, the verbs ${ }^{* \prime 3}$ and flow into one another, both classes terminate, in the Fut. and Part. of all the conjugations, without distinction, in $\aleph$ - or ${ }^{n}-$. As imitations of this mode of formation we are to regard those forms of the Inf., Imp., and Fut. in $\pi-$, more seldom $\aleph$ - and ${ }^{4}-$, which are found in Hebrew also, especially in the later writers and the poets. Inf. opprimendo Ex. xxii. 22, הָּקֶּ Lev. xix. 20. Imp. אn be thou Job
 אַלֹתַּעַטֵּ do not 2 Sam. xiii. 12.*

The Yodh is found even at the end of the word (which is also a Syriasm)
 xiv. 8.
18. In three verbs is found the unfrequent conjugation Pilel, or its reflexive ( $\$ 54,2$ ), where the third radical, which the conjugation requires


[^84]

 for
19. Before suffixes, the in final, with the preceding vowel, falls away, as
 seldom "- takes the place of the final $\pi-$ or $n-$, as in ${ }^{-2}=$, he will cover them, Ps. cxl. 10 , חַּפֵּיִּ smile me 1 Kings xx. 35. The 3 Pret. fem. al ways takes before suff: the older form $\boldsymbol{r}^{2} \stackrel{a}{i}$ (see No. 4), yet with a short $\check{a}$,
 Job xxxiii. 4.

## VI. Relation of Verbs $\boldsymbol{n}^{2}$ and $x^{3}$ to each cther.

20. The verbs of each of these classes, in consequence of their intimate relation (see second paragraph of this section, and Rem. 17), often borrow the forms of the other, especially in the usage of the poets and of the later writers.
21. Thus there are forms of verbs $\mathrm{x}^{3}$,
a) Which have adopted the vowel-points of verbs $\boldsymbol{n}^{2}$, e. g. Pret. exix. 101 ; Part. אכֶּ Eccles. ix. 18; viii. 12; Piël Prel. . אל̣̂m Jer. li. 34,


b) Which retain their own pointing, but have adopted the n, e. g. Imp.

c) Which in all respects have the appearance of verbs $\boldsymbol{i}$, e. g. n. ñ thou thirstest Ruth ii. 9; מְֶ they are full Ez. xxviii. 16; Inf. ion to sin Gen. xx. 6; Fat. Part. pass. thou prophesiest 1 Sam. x. 6; Inf. ח.
22. On the contrary there are forms of verbs ith which, in some respects, follow the analogy of verbs K . E. g. in their consonants,



## Sect. 75.

## VERBS DOUBLY ANOMALOUS.

1. Such are verbs which have two stem-letters affected by the anomalies already described, not including, however, those occasioned by gutturals. These verbs exhibit no new changes; and even in cases where two anomalies might occur, usage must teach whether the verb is actually subject to both, or but one of them, or, as sometimes happens, to neither.

Thus from וָדרי
xxxi． 40 （after the analogy of verbs 挴），Hiph．（as a verb צ゙y），but in

2．The following are examples of doubly anomalous verbs， and of difficult forms derived from them ：
 constr． חנָּ Ruth i． 14.
 Hence Fut．Kul Pret．Ifiph．




 1 Sam．xiv．24，from तלָ
 Inf．





 once
 Hiph．from xis Ps．cxli． 5.
Deserving of notice also，$g$ ）is the verb a verb s゙s，and hence has ַ in the 3 Pret．Kal，Gen．iii．22．In He－ brew it occurs only in this form．The synonymous and kindred stem is in frequent use．

## Sect． 76.

## RELATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS TO ONE ANOTHER．

 and ${ }^{10}$ ， pears from the similarity in their meaning and inflexion，from the forms which they have in common，and from their mutual interchange of forms．The affinity consists，as a rule，in the essential equality of two stem－consonants of firm sound，to which the common signification cleaves（liliteral root：$\S 30,2$ ），so that the third feebler radical is not taken into account．Thus $\mathfrak{i = T}$
 flee．

In this manner are related in form and signification，
1．Verbs＂y y y y y y which the essential stem－leters are the first and
放 and to flee．
 both to each other and to the former class．They are related to each other in the verbs former class，especially to verbs
 to break in pieces．Verbs $\kappa$ 旨 are more seldom found connected with these classes，as

3．Verbs the stemi），both to each other and to the furmer classes；to each other in



## Sect． 77.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS．

It often happens，when two kindred irregular verbs are in use in the same signification，that both are defective，i．e．do not oc－ cur in all the verbal forms．As these，however，are not generally the same in both，the two taken together make out a perfect verb，
 fero，tuli，latum，ferre；with this difference，that in Hebrew these verbs are almost universally related in form as well as sig－ nification，like the Greek $\beta \alpha i \nu \omega$, A or． 2 ，${ }^{*} \beta \eta r$, from the original form $\beta$ cić－ ．

Of these verbs the following are the most common：
 cially with the intransitive signification to feel ashamed．
 －スֵּ




敢 to break in pieces．Fut．

[^85]Piël $\gamma$ 个 N.. Pilpel

 to bring into a strait, to distress. The related form $\begin{aligned} & \text { צ } \\ & \text { is transitive, to }\end{aligned}$ press, hence to besiege.
a to drink, used in Kal; but in Hiph. to give to drink, from . بُّקחק

Rem. 1. The case is similar when different conjugations of the same verb, having the same signification, borrowed tenses from each other;

The is able, לָּ is wanting;
no: he has added, borrows its Inf. and Fut. from Hiph.
Uม to approach. Pret. Niph. ? for the Pret. Kal which is not in use; yet the Fut.

Rem. 2. The early Grammarians often speak of mixed forms (formis mixtis) in which, as they maintain, are united the character and significations of two tenses, genders, or conjugations. On correct grammatical principles most of the examples adduced are set aside (e.g. . Rem. 3); in others, the form seems to have originated in misapprehension
 suffix is appended to the ending ni, which had come to be regarded as plural). Others again are merely false readings.

## CHAPTER III.

## OF THENOUN.

Sect. 78.

## GENERAL VIEW.

1. In treating of the formation of the noun, it is very important to keep in view its relation to the verb, since most nouns may be derived from verbs (considering the 3 sing. Pret. as the stem-form, according to $\$ 30,1$ ), and even those which are not, whether primitives or derived from other nouns, follow the form and analogy of the verbals. Besides, on this connexion is based the explanation of the forms by which the gender of nouns is distinguished ( $\$ 79$, comp. § 92).

The Adjective agrees entirely with the Substantive in form, though it is manifestly only by a figure of speech that forms with an abstract signification can be treated as adjectives ( $\$ 82$, Rem. 1).
2. A regular inflexion of the noun by cases does not exist in Hebrew, although perhaps some ancient traces of case-endings remain ( $\S 88$ ). The relation of case in a noun is either learned simply from its position in the clause, or indicated by prepositions. In the form of the noun there is no change ; and hence the matter belongs not to this division of grammar, but to the Syntax (\$115). On the contrary, the connexion of the noun with suffixes, with the Feminine, Dual, and Plural terminations, and with a noun following in the genitive, produces numerous changes in its form, which is all that is meant by the inflexion of nouns in Hebrew.* Even for the Comparative and Superlative the Hebrew has no appropriate form, and these relations must be expressed by circumlocution, as taught in the Syntax ( 8117 ).

Sect. 79.
OF FORMS WHICH MARK THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

1. The Hebrew, like all the Shemitish languages, has but two genders, the masculine and feminine. Inanimate objects properly of the neuter gender, and abstract ideas, for which other languages have a weuter form, are regarded in Hebrew as either. masculine or feminine, particularly the latter (see the Syntax § $105,2-4$ ).
2. The masculine, as being the most common and important form of the noun, has no peculiar mark of distinction.

The ending for the feminine was originally $n_{-}$, as in the 3 sing. Pret. of verbs ( $\$ 44,1$ ). But when the noun stands without a genitive following [i. e. when it is not in the construct state, $\S 87$ ], the $\Pi_{-}$usually appears in the weakened form $\Pi_{-}$, or is shortened to $\Omega_{-}$unaccented. The original $\Omega_{-}$is very seldom found, except when the noun is in close connexion with a succeeding genitive, or has a pronominal suffix. Irrespective then of these two cases (for which see $\S 87,2, b, \S 89,4$ ), we have as feminine ending

[^86]a) Most commonly an accented $\pi_{-}$, as 0 oro horse, Mono mare;
b) An unaccented $\Omega$, after a guttural $\Omega$ (which also remains unchanged before the genitive), as (קָּטֶּ
 nation of the noun follows the manner of segholate forms $(\$ 92,2)$. When the masc. ends with a vowel, we have

 occasioned by these endings are exhibited in § 92 .*

Rem. 1. The feminine form in $\pi-$ is, in general, less frequent than the other, and seldon occurs except when the other is also in use. It is only in the Participles and Infinitives, that it is found more frequently than the
 common with $\pi-$, a form for the construct state $(\S 93,1)$.
2. Unusual feminine terminations:
 croved 2 Kings ix. 17, and often in proper names among Phœenicians and other neighboring tribes, as חیּ אֶּ Sarepta, AElana in Idumea, on the Arabian Gulf.
 help Ps. lx. 13, but in prose also is found $\begin{gathered}\text { nָ̄ } \\ \text { min } \\ \text { morrow Gell. xix. } 34 .\end{gathered}$
c) $\kappa-$, Aranæan orthography for $\pi-$, found chiefly in the later writers,
 Lam. iii. 12.
d) Very rare $ה$, a weakened form of $\because-(\$ 27$, Rem. 4), as for

 furnace Hos. vii. 4 ; comp. Ez. xl. 19; 2 Kings xvi. 18. In all these examples there should be the usual accented $n-$; but the Punctators, not comprehending the feminine here, marked the $\boldsymbol{i}$ (by depriving it of the tone) as not feminine, which is however no rule for us. Also Then night seems by the tone like a masc. form, particularly as it is always construed as masc., and we find 3 ?
 ה doubtful. $\dagger$

 help $(=$ ( $=$ ),

* On the feminines not distinguished by the form, see § 05, 1. 3. 4.
$\dagger$ The ending $\pi_{T}$ in these words has been taken for the termination of the Aramæan emphatic state, so making objections: 1) That some examples have the Heb. article, which implies at least that the Aramæan form was not recognised, 2) That the examples in part
 other places.*

3. It is wholly inapt to consider [as Gesenius and Nordheimer did] the vowel ending $n-\dagger$ as the original termination of the feminine, and the consonant ending $n$ - as derived from it. The 不thiopic still has the $n$ constantly, and in Phœ⿱ician also the feminines end almost without exception in $\pi$ (not $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ or $\mathbb{N}$ ), which is sounded ath in the words found in Greek and Roman authors (see Gesenii Monumenta Phœenicia, pp. 439, 440). The ancient Arabic has the weakened vowel-ending scarcely anywhere but in the pause, the modern Arabic is, in this respect, much like the Hebrew.

Sect. 80.

## DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

 or derivative. The latter are derived either from the verb (Ver-
 to be just, םרָ high, רָּ high pluce, height, from םiּ to be
 place at the feet. The Verbals are by far the most numerous class.

Rem. 1. Many of the early Grammarians, who admitted none but verbs as stem-words, classed all nouns aniong the verbals, and divided them into a) Formee nuda, i. e. such as have only the three (or tivo) stem-letters, and b) Formac aucto, such as have received formative letters or syllables at the


According to the view of roots and stems given in $\S 30,1$, the relation of the noun to the verb is strictly somewhat different, since according to it many nouns are formed immediately from the (ideal) root. But we here retain the common view, as being easier for beginners.
2. Of compound nouns, as appellatives, the number in Hebrew is very
 proper names, they occur pretty frequently, e. g. .
belong to the more ancient books, and 3) That we find among them so old and familiar a word as bial signification noctu, and then used simply for nox, no regard being had to the
 the Note.

* This ending $\underset{\sim}{\text { - }}$ too has been compared with that of the Aram. emphatic state, or been regarded as an accusative ending.
$\dagger$ A consonantal $\pi h$ is quite out of the question in this ending.
$\ddagger$ From this vox memorialis ( $\$ 5$, Note $\dagger$ ) the nomina aucta are also called, by the old Grammarians, nomina heemantica.
 of the king, םרּרְ

Sect. 81.

## PRIMITIVE NOUNS.

1. The number of Primitives is very small, the nouns which are in most languages primitive being here usually derived from verbal ideas, e. g. most of the names of natural objects, as שָׁצִּיר he-groat (prop. shaggy, from שָׁנָׁ),
 (from זָּדָ dinal numbers ( $\$ 95$ ), and there are many names of members of the body, in men and beasts, for which no stem-verb can be

2. The form of the Primitives is that of the simplest verbals, as aver $^{2}$, 2 , and it makes no difference, in the grammatical treatment, to which class the nouns belong.

Some follow the analogy of the regular ( $\$ 33$ ), others that of the irregular verb (§84), e. g. $\quad$ ㄱָָ man as if from father, צֵ mother, as if from Nָָּ, when which is very improbable.

Sect. 82.

## of VERBAL NOUNS IN GENERAL.

1. In Hebrew, as in Greek and Latin, the verbal nouns are connected in form and signification with certain forms of the verb, namely, the Participles and Infinitives, which even without any change are often employed as nouns, e. g. Tַּנַּn (to know) knowledge, (hating) enemy. Still oftener, however, have certain forms of the Infinitive and Participle, seldom or never found in the regular verb, though employed in other dialects and in the irregular verb, become the usual forms of the verbal noun,
 2), \&c. Some, as the Arabic shows, are properly intensive forms of the Participle.
2. As to signification, it follows from the nature of the case, that nouns which have the form of Infinitives regularly denote the action or state, with other closely related ideas (such as the place of the action), and are, therefore, mostly abstract; that.
participial nouns, on the contrary, denote, for the most part, the subject of the action, or of the state, and hence are concrete. It often happens, however, that a certain signification is found in single examples, which is not characteristic of the form.

Rem. 1. It need not appear strange, moreover (for it is found in all languages), that a noun which in form is properly abstract, should be employed metaphorically as a consrete, and vice versa. So in English we say, his acqaintance, for those with whom he is acquainted; the Godhead, for God himself; in Heb. מוֹד acquaintance and an acquaintance; simplicity and a simple one; on the contrary $n \underset{\sim}{n}$ nat which sinneth for sin, which is a frequent use of the fem. concrete $(\S 83,5.6 .11)$.
2. For facilitating the general view we treat first of the derivatives from the regular verb (in next section) and then of those from the irregular (§ 84 ).

## Sect. 83.

## NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE REGULAR VERB.*

## We distinguish here,

I. Forms originally Participles, or participial Nouns, from Kal.
 ( $\$ 49,2$ ), in use as a participle only in verbs ${ }^{\prime} \xi(\$ 71,4)$. It is most frequently employed as an adjective expressing quality, as $\mathfrak{\square}$ new,
 sitive notions ( $\$ 43$ ), atd for adjectives of quality, e. g. $\ddagger$ Fivild, old man; ©
 with intransitive sense, e. g. 沦 quently as an adjective, even when no Pret. with Cholem is found, as bity
 No. 21 with the doubling of the last radical must not be confounded with this.
 tive verbs, e. g. בix enemy, F:in suckling; hence of the instrument by which the action is performed, as ung a cutting instrument, a weapon. A feminine with a collective signification is found in $\begin{gathered}\text { א } \\ \text { א } \\ \text { caravan, properly the }\end{gathered}$ wandering, vandering host.
5. 3 . form employed rather as a substantive, like the Greek verbals in tós. E. g.
 an active signification also, in intransitive verbs, as strong. Some words of this form express the time of the action, as

[^87]

 deliverance (the being delivered).
 usual intensive form of the Participle, and hence in Heb. expresses what is habitual, e.g. חַּ
 again the feminine (
 guttural
7. 3 . קַen and of which forms are most adjectives in the Chaldee, as tives only.
 seldom in a passive sense, as ? born.

 blind, חִּ lame, as no

## II. Nouns after the manner of Infinitives of Kal.*

 plest forms of this class, of which the first and last are employed in the verb as Infinitive ( $\$ 45,2$ ). As nominal forms they are unfrequent, e. g. .


 the characteristic vowel in the third syllable, and the helping-vowel Seghol $(\S 28,4)$ in the second. Instead of the Seghol, a Paltach is used with gut-
 queen, הیּุ• fear,

In masculines as well as feminines the abstract is the proper and prevailing signification, yet not unfrequently the concrete occurs, specially in the form קֶּ lord, ${ }^{\text {a man }}$. In such forms the concrete sense is secondary and derived from the abstract, as in prop. brutishness, prop. season of youth (comp. Eng. youth and $a$ youth); or the form of the word is shortened from another with a concrete sense, as ruling, serving. $\dagger$ But altogether the meaning of the fornis is very various, e. g. even for the instrument, as $\begin{gathered}\text { חֶ sword, } \\ \text { g graving-tool, and passively }\end{gathered}$

* All these forms are found, mutatis mutandis, in the Arabic as Infinitives, or so called nomina actionis.
$\dagger$ Such an origin of מֶֶ may be proved from the Arabic; and in some other nouns it is obvious. Coinp. as the name of a town with a $a$ wall, and


 youth, צux youth.


 form

13. tween the second and third radicals, and a $S^{e}{ }^{e}$ va under the first, as

 feminines will suggest themselves; the forms those of feminines in No. 5.

 กาที่ wages. Under this form, besides the action itself, is expressed very often the place of the action, as ְְִִּבִּר (from allar to drive) place of driving, i. e. to which cattle are driven, wilderness; and the instrument, as $\Gamma^{2}$ ivxplenife.
14. 萑, and other similar forms, with the terminations if and
 forms like

For $\dagger i$ there is a truncated form $i$, written also $i t$, which occurs espe-
 Plato). In Patronymic and Gentilic nouns $(\$ 85,5)$ the Nun is restored: e. g. .
 the Aramæan, this is a usual termination of the Infinitive in the derived conjugations (comp. No. 28). Its frequent use appears only in the later books. As a synonymous ending we find at times $\pi^{\text {n }}$ - in earlier use, as ת remnant. Comp. the denominative nouns § 85, 6.

## III. Participials of the derived Conjugations.


18. 19. From Piël and Hiph., e. g. תרֶּ
20. From Poël, as
21. From Pilel ${ }^{2}$ 范, fern.


 sense (like miser, misellus, Germ. Gesinde, Gesindel), as


## IV. Infinitives of the derived Conjugations.



[^88]25．From Piel，like $\rightarrow$ שָׁpe request，with Qamets unchangeable．

26． very common in Arabic），E．g．व． Beneft ；תַּגְּ mantle．
 nouncing，Aramæan Infinitives．The Qamets is firm．

29．From Hilhp．
30．From Poell，like foll prison．

32．From Pilel $a$ a putting on，and 33．
34．חipripip opening，Inf．to No． 23.
35． 3 ，e．g．
36．Quadriliterals，like $\begin{gathered}\text { ■ } \\ \text { T？} \\ \text { OT locust．}\end{gathered}$

## Sect． 84.

## NOUNS DERIVED FROM THE IRREGULAR VERB．

These are formed in the same manner as those of which we have already treated，with few variations，except such as are oc casioned by the peculiarities of irregular verbs．Accordingly we shall refer these forms to the corresponding ones already de－ scribed，mentioning only such as exhibit some impartant irregu． larity．

## I．From Verbs 橧．

 28．

## II．From Verbs 4.

 （to indicate the sharpening of the syllable），${ }^{2}$ abject，

 Fem． ．roll．The form comes a segholate form，as 7 确 bitterness，
 praise，${ }^{\text {a }}$ ，



> III. From Verbs 绝 and 䨐.

The Participial forms are regular．Forms originally Infinitives are：


[^89]
 the south.

## IV. From Verbs 壮 and 4 "

Participles: 1. foreign; 2. stranger,
 as מִּשוֹט oar (from שֶוּ) ; 27.

## V. From Verbs ה゙3.


 covering,


 then quiesces in Chireq (comp. on sickness. The 4 also quiesces as in waste. In masculines the third
 feminines it is always so, as in
 ת pit. 14.
 destruction. 27. חַּבּלִּ annihilation,


## VI. From doubly anomalous Verbs.

We present only some cases of especial difficulty to the beginner:
 xli. 17.
2. From a verb

3. From a verb กญู่ดู่.
 sign for
 רָּוֹדוּ

To the learner the stem is often obscured also by contraction, when it

 (from זיחָה ) brightness.

Sectr. 85.

## DENOMINATIVE NOUNS.

1. Such are all nouns which are formed immediately from another noun, whether it is primitive, or derived from a verb, e. g. קִדמוֹך eastern immediately from the east, which is itself derived from the verb
2. Most of the forms which nouns of this class assume have already been given, the Denominatives (which seem in general to be a later phenomenon of language than Verbals) being formed in imitation of nouns derived from the verb. The Verbal with a prefixed, e. g. was employed to express the place of an action ( $\$ 83$, No. 14); accordingly this $\square$ was prefixed to a noun in order to make it a designation of place (see No. 3). Also in Greek and German [and English too and Welsh], the Verbals and Denominatives are exactly analogous.

The principal forms are the following:

1. In imitation of the Part. Kal (No. 4 of the Verbals), as porter,
 -
2. Like Verbals of No. 6, קַָּׁ
 ment, trade, \&c., like Greek nouns in $\tau \eta \varsigma, ~ \tau \varepsilon u ́ s, ~ e . ~ g . ~ \pi o \lambda i \tau \eta s, ~ \gamma \varrho \propto \mu \mu \alpha \tau \varepsilon v ́ s . ~$
3. Nouns with $\triangleright$ prefixed, expressing the place of a thing (comp. No. 14

 for ${ }_{\alpha}^{\alpha} \mu \pi \varepsilon \lambda о \varsigma$.
4. Concretes formed by the addition of $i \boldsymbol{i}, i_{\nabla}$, as
 from ה



5. Peculiar to this class of nouns is the termination "-, which converts a substantive into an adjective, and is added especially to numerals and names of persons and countries, in order to form Ordinals, Gentilics, and



 the article with such forms, see $\$ 109,1$, Rem.). Rarely instead of - we have $a$ ) the ending ${ }^{4}$ - (as in Aramæan), as ${ }^{\text {an }}$ deceitful, and in proper
 (prop. milky) white poplar.
6. Abstract nouns formed from concretes by the addition of $\pi^{4}$ and $\boldsymbol{n}^{4}$ (comp. the Eng. terminations dom, hood, ness, \&c.); e. g. מּלֶ kingdom,

 No. 16.).

Sect. 86.

## OF THE PLURAL.

1. The plural termination for the masculine gender is $\begin{array}{r}\text { - } \\ \text {, , }\end{array}$
 as in Gen. i. 21, תַּתִּימשם. Nouns ending in ${ }^{n}-$ take plural, as עִבְברִיּים Hebrews from עִבְים (Ex. iii. 18); but usually a contraction takes place, as (עִבְּים ( 9 91, VIII.), ments from שָׁụu . Nouns in $\boldsymbol{T}_{-7}$ lose this termination when they take the plural ending, e. g. חוֹזֶים seer, plur.

This ending $\bar{z} m$ is also prevalent in Phœnician, e.g. Sidonians, in Aramæan it is $\bar{\imath} n$, in Arabic $\bar{u} n$ (nominative) and $\bar{\imath} n$ (oblique cases), in Ethiopic $a n$. It is, moreover, identical with the ending $\eta^{\dagger}$ in $3 p . p l$. masc. of verbs.

Unusual terminations of the plur. masc. are:
a) $\prod^{-}$., as in Chaldee and Syriac, almost exclusively in the later and
 fectively 22 ; xxxi. 10 ; Lam. i. 4 and other places.
b) "- (with ■ cast off, as in Dual
 xxii. 44 (yet in the parallel passage Ps. xviii. 44 we have $\begin{gathered}\text { y } \\ \text {, but the other }\end{gathered}$ form in Lam. iii. 14 and Ps. cxliv. 2). This ending is, however, doubted by many in these single passages (see also 2 Sam. xxiii. 8 ; comp. 1 Chron. xi. 11 ; 1 Sam. xx. $38 \mathrm{~K}^{\mathrm{e}}$ thibh), see Gesenius's Lehrgebăude der Heb. Sprache, S. 524 ff . More doubtful is
c) ${ }^{4}$ = (like the constr. state in Syriac). Here are reckoned, e. g. חוֹרַי
 Jer. xxii. 14. Yet this last is perhaps Dual ( $\S 86, b$, Rem. 1) two windows,
 syllable. Farther חְשׁn in Is. xx. 4 is constr. st., but the - belonge to

 it is originally a suffix, see § 119, Rem. 4.
2. The plural termination for the feminine gender is 51. This takes the place of the feminine termination $\pi_{-}, \pi_{7}, \pi_{-}$, when the noun in the singular ends with one of these; other-
wise it is merely appended to the form of the singular, as
 well, plur. . Feminines in $\boldsymbol{\Omega}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ - form their plural in

 tions have, however, for their basis, the endings $\boldsymbol{-}$ and $\boldsymbol{-}-$ in the singular.

It is only from a disregard of the origin of the terminations $\boldsymbol{n}$ and $\boldsymbol{n}^{\boldsymbol{n}}$ that some words which end with them, form their plural by the addition of


 consonant, from the singular ציוּת.

This ending ni (-oth) stands for -ath (as it sounds in Arab., 閸th, and Chaldee, see on the change of $a$ to 0 in $\S 9,10,2$ ), and -ath is properly only a longer and stronger form of the singular ending - $-\boldsymbol{u} t h(\$ 79,2)$. The strengthening is intended to denote the plural. But this ending is then by a farther application appended also to such nouns as have not -äth in the singular.
For the changes of vowels occasioned by the addition of the plural endings, see $\$ 91,93$.
3. Words which are of two genders $(\oint 105,4)$ have often, in the plural, both the masculine and feminine terminations, e. g.
 as masculine and feminine, but their gender must be determined by observing the usage of the language in respect to each word. This is also true of several other words of both genders and both (masc. and fem.) terminations, e. g. רי Th age, masc., plur.
 gender of the singular is here retained in both the plural forms,
 xlii. 16 .

Sometimes usage makes a distinction between the two plural forms of
 nijuw the unfrequent and poetical forms. This distinction appears especially in the use of several words which designate members of the human body. The dual of these words (see § 36 b ) is employed as the name of the living members themselves, while the plural in $n i$ (which is here regarded as neuter) represents something similar, but inanimate. E. g. hands,
 Iַיָּנוֹת fountains.
4. A considerable number of masculines form their plural in
ni, while many feminines have a plural in ים - In both cases, however, the gender of the singular is usually retained in the

 cubine, fem., plur.
5. It is chiefly only in adjectives and participles that we find the plural endings regularly and constantly distinguished accord-
 Sem. So also in substantives of the same stem, when the
 ת regince.

Rem. 1. In some few words, to the plural form in ni is added the other termination of the plural $\mathrm{t}^{n}$ - (before the genitive ${ }^{n}$ - , comp. § 87, 2), or

 תizin (mcenia), ansizin double wall. This double designation of the plural appears also in the mode of connecting the suffixes with the plural forms in $\boldsymbol{\pi i}(\$ 89,3)$.
2. Some nouns are used only in the plural, e. g. gen (in the Fthiopic. sing. mét, man) ; and some of these have a singular sense ( $\$ 106$, 2), as a
 Ez. i. 6.

Sect. 86 b.

## OF THE DUAL.

1. As a modification of the plural we have the dual, which however is used only in substantives (not in adjectives, verbs and pronouns). It is indicated in both genders by the ending
 days; but the feminine termination ${ }^{-}-$always becomes in this



The vowel-shortening in the noun upon the addition of the dual ending is rather greater than in the plural, particularly in

 from iְ cheek.

Rem. 1. Unusual forms of the dual, mostly occurring only in proper


2 Kings vi. 13 ( $p r$. name signifying two vells); b) $\square-$ and $\square$ - , as $\square$ tpuy,
 (with ■ cast off), xxii. 14.

 n, 品, ; the latter is a lengthened form for the older

2. The use of the dual is in Hebrew confined, except in the numerals $2,12,200, \& c$. ( $\$ 95$ ), chiefly to such objects as are by

 scales, or at least are thought of as forming a pair, as ann two
 nium, $\square$ חַּ
 a all linees Ez. vii. 17. For additional stress the dual takes also the numeral two, Amos iii. 12 ; Judges xvi. 28.

Some other remarks on the use of the dual, see in §86, Nos. 3,5 (Rem.).
It cannot be doubted that the Hebrew at an earlier period made a more extensive and free use of the dual, and that the restrictions above specified belong to a later phase of its development. The ancient Arabic forms the dual in the noun, pronoun, and verb almost coextensively with the Sanskrit or the Greek; but the modern Arabic omits it in verbs, pronouns, and adjectives. The Syriac retains it only in four words, but yet without living force, somewhat like the Roman forms ambo, duo. In like manner the dual is lost in the newer Indian tongues. On the German dual see Grimm's Granm. I. S. 814, 2 Ausg.

## Sect. 87.

## THE GENITIVE AND THE CONSTRUCT STATE.

1. The Hebrew has no more the living use of case endings, $\dagger$ but indicates the relations of case, either by no outward means, as that of the nominative and generally also of the accusative, or by prepositions ( $\$ 115$ ); but the genitive relation is indicated by a close connexion between two nouns. The noun, which serves as genitive to limit the other, remains unchanged, and is only uttered in more close connexion with the preceding nomen regens. In consequence of this connexion the tone hastens on

[^90]to the second (the genitive) of the two nouns,* and the first is therefore commonly shortened, by changes partly in the consonants, but chiefly in the vowels (when changeable), e. g.


 people. Thus in Hebrew, $\dagger$ the noun which stands before a genitive suffers the change [when there is any] by which this relation is indicated, and in grammatical language it is said to be in the construct state, while a noun which is not thus followed by a genitive is said to be in the absolute state.

Such words are often connected by Maqqeph ( $\$ 16,1$ ). The insertion or omission of it, however, does not affect their relation to each other, and depends nerely upon the accentuation. On the farther use of the constr. st. see the Syntax 09 113, 114.
2. The vowel-changes which many nouns exhibit in the construct state are taught in the Paradigms, 88 91, 93. This form of the noun has, moreover, peculiar terminations better fitted for union with the following noun: thus,
 has by throwing off the $m$ simply ${ }^{4}$ - (comp. Rem.); e. g.
 y eyes of the man.
b) The feminine ending $\pi_{-}$is used, and it always takes the
 quequ queen Sheba. When the same word has also the termination $\Pi_{\%}$, this form of it is adopted in the const. st. (§ 79, 2, Rem. 1).
c) Nouns in $\pi_{-\%}$ from verbs $\pi_{-} ; \ddagger$ but nouns in ${ }^{n}-$ change this termination to ${ }^{n} \ldots$. Exs.
 constr. Nיt valley.

[^91]On the ending $i$ and ${ }^{-}-$in the const. st., see $\$ 88$.
Rem. Probably the $\square$ at the end of a word was pronounced obscurely, like the Latin $-m$ before a vowel, and hence might be wholly lost in pronunciation, just as the $m$, in the case alluded to, was slurred over in the language of common life and in poetry. Quinct. Inst. Orat. IX. $4, \S 40$. So also the corresponding $n$ of the plural ending in Arabic and Aramæan is slurred over, and that of the plural ending $\dagger$ in the verb ( $\$ 44,1$, and § 47, Rem. 4). After the rejection of the $m$, the final vowel $i$ was strengthened by a foregoing $a$ (Guna in Sanskrit grammar), so that $a i$ arose, which was then contracted to $\hat{e}(\$ 7,1$, and $\S 9,6)$. Instead of ${ }^{4}$ - the Syriac has ${ }^{4}$-, the original form, from which the other is obtained by contraction ( $\$ 7,1$, and $24,2, b$ ); in Hebrew too this form may be clearly traced in the suffixes to the plural noun ( $\$ 89,2$ ). Of this the Old Testament perhaps furnishes an example in the form שָׁun Is. xx. 4 (according to some also Judges v. 15). It is obvious that the ${ }^{4}-$ of the dual has come from ${ }^{4}$-.

Sect. 88.

## TRACES OF ANCIENT CASE-ENDINGS [PARAGOGIC LETTERS].

$T_{-}$local, ${ }^{7}$ - and i appended to the construct state.

1. As the Arabic distinguishes three cases by terminations, so we find also in the Hebrew noun three endings, which correspond in sound to those of the Arabic, but have mostly lost their signification. These endings remain only as obscure traces of a fuller and more vital organic development, than the language exhibits in the Old Testament, where it no longer ordinarily distinguishes the cases by terminations.

The Arabic case-endings are: $-u$ for the nominative, $-i$ for the genitive and $-a$ for the accusative (corresponding to the three principal vowels). In modern Arabic these endings have disappeared, except that of the accusative, which is still occasionally heard, when it stands as an adverbial case. The AEthiopic likewise has preserved only the $-a$, which is, however, still used for the whole range of the accusative and, moreover (the distinction of case being dropped), as a termination of the constr. st. for connecting it with a following genitive.
2. The accusative relation is still very obvious in the toneless ending $\pi_{-}$, which is appended to the substantive,
a) Most generally to denote direction towards an object or mo-
tion to a place,* [answering to our -ward] e. g.

[^92]the sea，westward， Assyria， ticle， the plural，ַַּשָׁun towards the heavens；even after the constr．state with a following geni－
 the wilderness of Damascus，מִּרְחָה שֶֶׁuּu（here with the tone， contrary to rule）towards the rising of the sun，eastward；
b）Sometimes in a weaker sense，as merely pointing to the place where，＊as in Babylon Jer．xxix．15， ing Hab．iii．11，also ${ }^{\text {نָׁund }}$ there Jer．xviii． 2 （usually thither）；
c）The proper sense of the ending $\pi$ is still more suppressed
 Ps．ix．18，לְמַּעְלָה upwards， from Babylon Jer．xxvii． 16.
This termination $n_{-}$has usually reference to place（hence called $H$ e local）；yet it also in rare cases refers to time，so per－
 to year．Its use is peculiar in חָּלְיָּלָ prop．ad profanim ！＝ab－ sit！As accusative of the object（but bordering on the local sense）we may regard comp．Job xxxiv． 13.

As this ending is properly unaccented，the vowels of the word，as the above examples show，undergo scarcely any change，except that the help－ ing vowel of segholate forms becomes $\operatorname{Sh}^{e} \mathrm{va}(\$ 91,6$ ），and also the Chireq in שָׁmer ．Moreover the itself is in some cases shortened to $\pi-$－as ก⿰ֶ习习 to Nob 1 Sam．xxi．2；comp．Ez．xxv． 13.
3．Much less frequent and almost exclusively poetical is the use of the two other endings，which along with the accusative in $\Pi_{-}$are presumed to correspond to the Arabic terminations of case，${ }^{4}-$ for the genitive，${ }^{i}$（also ${ }^{7}$ in proper names）for the nomi－ native．Yet the reference to case in these forms is quite lost， and they are to be regarded only as archaisms，which occur in poetry or in stately speech，and are besides found in many com－ pound names handed down from early times．As in these names，so also elsewhere，these terminations stand only with a

[^93]noun closely connected with another, namely in the construct state.*
a) The ending ${ }^{4}-$ is not very unfrequent, and it usually has the tone, e. g. עִ Toud dweller of the bush Deut. xxxiii. 16; appended to the

 the manner of Melchizedel Ps. cx. 4; very often when a

 Gen. xlix. 11, comp. Is. xxii. 16, Micah vii. 14, Ps. cxiii. 5-9, and other passages; in like manner it is found with many particles which are strictly nouns in the constr. st., as זוּלָתִי צ besides, מִּבְּ from, not, and in compound names, as
 חַּנִּיאל (grace of God), and many others; comp. the Punic

b) The ending $i$ is of much rarer occurrence, in prose only in the Pentateuch, and that in solemn style, Gen. i. 24, חַחיֶח אֶרֶ the beasts of the earth for , חֵּחה אֶרֶ, the same is copied in Ps. l. 10, lxxix. 2, civ. 11, 20, Zeph. ii. 14, Is. lvi. 9; other cases are בְּמוֹ בְצׂׂ son of Beor Num. xxiv. 3, 15 and
 youl of the sluggard Prov. xiii. 4.

The effect these endings have on the vowels may be seen from the examples given. The Pattach of the feminine ending $n$ - becomes sometimes vocal $\mathrm{Sh}^{\circ}$ va, sometimes Qamets.

Rem. As these two terminations ${ }^{\square}$-. and $\ddagger$ have wholly lost their significance, they can no longer pass for proper case-endings; yet it is probable that once they as well as $n-$ (No. 2) were so used in the living language, for we find that the ancient Arabic had exactly corresponding endings, and like the Hebrew lost them at a later period. This is the case also in other tongues. In Latin, for instance, we find a trace of the local case (in names of towns, ruiri, domi, \&c.), in modern Persian the plural endings $a_{n}$ and $h a$ are ancient terminations of case, which are no longer so used,--not to men-

[^94]tion the Germanic languages and the lingua Romana.-Even in cases where the ancient Arabic attached, with stronger sound, case-endings to
 all three forms without distinction of case. Hence also probably in the Hebrew constr. state wat we have properly a genitive ending, and in
 tive ending, so that


## Sect. 89.

## THE NOUN WITH PRONOMINAL SUFFIXES.

In connecting the noun with pronominal suffixes, which in this case denote the genitive of the pronoun ( $\$ 33,2, b$ ), we have, as in the verb ( $\$ 56, \& c$.), two things to notice, namely, the form of the suffixes themselves and the change in the noun that receives them. Here we take up chiefly the first, as the second will be treated of under the inflexion of nouns in $£ \subseteq 90-93$. A general view of the suffixes is given also in Paradigm A. We exhibit the suffixes, first, as appended to the singular, and then as appended to the plural and dual of the noun.

1. The suffixes appended to the singular are:


Rem. 1. There is a less variety of forms here than with the verb, and their use is as follows:
a) The forms without a union-vowel are joined to nouns which end with a vowel, as wָ wet it
 do not come under this rule.
b) The forms with a union-vowel $(\S 57,3, b)$ are joined to nouns ending with a consonant, which are by far the majority. The union-vowel is
 $1-$, and in these cases $e$ is scarcely used except with nouns in $\pi-$, as范 are of rare occurrence, see Rem. 2.
2. Rare forms are:


 xiii. 3; xxxv. 21; तivp. 2 Kings xix. 23, for which we find izp in Is

Plur. 1 pers. 12-, as

 vii. 37, Gen. xli.21, is unfrequent (Is. iii. 17), usually $1-\tau$.
2. In appending the suffixes to the plural masc. in the dual in $\square!-$, these endings are changed for the construct ending ( $\$ 87,2$ ) in ${ }^{5}$ - which becomes blended with the suffixes; and hence we have these

## Suffixes of Plural [and Dual] Nouns:



In most of these forms the plural construct ${ }^{\square}-$ remains un-

 suffixes it takes Pattach (the original ending ${ }^{4}=, 887$, Rem.),
 from süsaï-i.

Rem. 1. The Yodh, which distinguishes these suffixes, is occasionally

 This happens most commonly with the suif.' 3 pers. $m$. sing., where we very often find $\uparrow_{\Gamma}$, which is however almost constantly changed in the $K^{e}{ }^{e}$ i


 Ez. xli. 15.-Plur. fem. i. 11 .
3. On in
3. It is clear and unquestionable that the Yodh in these suffixes, in reality, belongs to the ending of the constr. st. of the masculine plural. Yet this was so far lost sight of by those who spoke the language, that there arose the strange peculiarity (yea,
inaccuracy) of appending these suffix-forms (already embracing the plural ending ${ }^{4}-$ ) to the feminine plural in $\boldsymbol{\pi l}$, as as
 ral occurs.*
N.B. This is the rule ; yet the bare suffix (as in No. 1) is sometimes
 this is even the more prevalent mode in the 3 plur., e. g. 区ñizu their fathers, oftener than generations.
4. We now subjoin, in illustration of the above statements, a Paradigm of the masculine and feminine; and choose for the purpose a word whose stem-vowel is unchangeable. Instead of the feminine ending $\pi_{-}$in the singular, the construct ending $\Pi_{-}$- is employed, which retains its Pattach before $\square \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\nabla}$, $\}$, but changes it to Qamets before the others, because it then stands in an open syllable ( $887,2, b$ ).

Masculine Noun. Feminine Noun.
Singular.
Suff.sing. 1. com.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { masc. } \\ \text { fem. }\end{array}\right.$
 plur. 1. com. סרסטמ our horse.

3. $\{$ masc.


## Plural.

OשOM horses.
Suff. sing. 1. com. . my horses.
 $\{$ fem. .

 テగְon op thy mare. Tnion thy mare. inoto his mare. ‥nowo her mare. Dinion our mare. ם סenco your mare. Tכְחַּס your mare.
ס ס a horse.

- my horse.

Opo thy horse.
Oon thy horse.

חop a mare.

תion mares. ตทาะ my mares. ตֹiniov thy mares. ฟทำง

กָּ

[^95]plur. 1. com. סטר our horses.




Tiximo our mares.
םจֶּת่า your mares.
ט your mares
ם סֶּת their mares.


SECT. 90.

## VOWEL CHANGES IN THE NOUN.

1. The vowel-changes of nouns [to which is commonly given the name declension], are caused, $a$ ) by a noun following in the genitive, $b$ ) by pronominal suffixes, $c$ ) by the plural and dual terminations; to which is added, again, the effect of a genitive following, or suffix.
2. The tone, in all these cases, is moved forward more or less or even thrown upon the following word. We here distinguish three cases, viz.
a) When the tone is moved forward only one place. This effect is produced by most of the suffixes for singular nouns
 the plural and dual terminations, as $\underset{\sim}{\text { Tָה }}$ word, , word, plur. -宊, The same applies to the light suffixes for


b) When the tone is moved forward two places, as in the plural constr. and when the grave suffixes are appended to the plural ( are shortened to the utmost, e. g. . ple;

In segholates, as they have the tone on the penultima, there is here a difference. The suffix has not so great effect as the (longer) plural ending - , , Ri: the former leaves the chief vowel still under the first letter, as
 second consonant, as מֶּלְכִ. Comp. § 91, 6.
c) When the suffix begins with a consonant without a union-
检, (for which we have more commonly $\square_{-}$, $\boldsymbol{7}_{-}$). Of

[^96]these the first is a light suffix, and regularly affects the tone in just the same manner as ${ }^{4}$-, i, e. g. . The others are grave suffixes, and have more effect in shortening the vowels, A similar effect is seen in the constr. st. of the singular

3. The vowel changes in feminine nouns ( $\$ 93$ ) are not so considerable, the addition of the feminine ending having already occasioned a shortening of the vowels ( $\$ 92$ ).

Most of the vowe] changes, which form this internal inflexion of the noun, are based on the principles laid down in $£ \S 23-29$. There are others, however, which are occasioned by the peculiar structure of certain forms of nouns exhibited in $\$ \S 83,84,85$. They are nearly all confined to the last two syllables of the word, the third syllable from the end seldom having a mutable vowel ( $\$ 27$ at commencement).

There is a striking difference between the vowel changes in the verb and the noun. In the verb the second of two changeable vowels mostly
 comp. §27, 3.

Changes of consonants are very few, and occur only in Parad. IX.

Sect. 91.

## PARADIGMS OF MASCULINE NOUNS.

Masculine nouns may be most conveniently arranged, with reference to their vowel changes, in nine classes, as in the table on the two following pages. See the necessary explanations on page 180. We here only remark in general,
$a^{\prime}$ 'That all feminines without a distinctive termination ( $\$ 105$, 1,3 ) are inflected like masculine nouns, except that in most
 \&c. Plur. absol. חֲרָבוֹח, constr. st. חַרְבוֹת, which is also the form before all the suffixes, see $\S 93$.
b) That in the plural, light suffixes are without exception attached to the absolute, and grave suffixes to the construct state.

## Paradigms of

|  | I． | II． | III． | IV |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing．absol． | 0 | עוֹלָּ | 䍓 | Tָּדֶר |
|  | （horse） | （eternity） | （overseer） | （word） |
| constr． | 0 |  | וּקִיִיד | 7דּדֶ！ |
| light suff． | סוּסִי | צוֹֹלִּ | 䍖 |  |
| grave suff．＊ | סוּסֶם |  |  | 隹 |
| Plur．absol． | סוּסִים |  | 景 | ם |
| constr． | סיסֵי | （\％） |  | ำ |
| light suff． |  |  |  | 葠 |
| grave suff． |  |  |  | דָּרֶּ |
| Dual absol． | רוֹרַיִִים | מֶּ |  |  |
|  | （two days） | ir of tongs） | （two weeks） | （wings） |
| constr． |  |  |  | \％ |



[^97]
## Masculine Nouns．



| VI． | VII． |  | VIII． |  |  | IX． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i． | a． | b． | a． | b． | c． |  |
| 1⁄ | Kins | ロゼ | ワ | צ | Pin | חוֹדֶד |
| （fruit） | （enemy） | （name） | （sea） | （mother） | （statute） | （seer） |
| 9 | אix | ¢ֵּם | 므ํ | 区 | － |  |
| פִּרְיִ | אִֹיִִיִ |  | ִִִַּי | אִִִּים |  | וֹרִיִ |
|  |  |  |  |  | חָּקֶדם | חוֹחָּ |
|  | אוֹיִים |  | ִִַַּים | nies | חִקִים | חוֹדים |
| （gazelles） | － | טֶ｜ | － | nimex | 埙 | וֹתז |
|  |  | － |  | （1） | 年 | וֹרַיר |
|  | 或入 | （1） |  |  |  | וֹזֵירֶם |
| －לn | ¢ |  | 吅或 |  |  |  |
| （cheeks） | air of |  | （nostrils） | （teeth） |  |  |
|  | Kim |  | ํx | ¢ִדּבֵּ |  |  |

Such are most sromus of 2 d and 3d pers．plural，whether joined to the singular，


## Explanations.

1. To Parad. I. belong all nouns whose vowels are immutable. Of course there are no vowel-changes in this Paradigm, and it is inserted only for comparison with the others.

 belong the classes of verbal nouns given in § 83, Nos. $6,7,8,13,26,27$.
2. To Parad. II. belong nouns which have a changeable Qamets in their final syllable, and are either monosyllabic or have the preceding vowels immutable. E. g. $T_{\tau}^{n}$ hand, בָּ




There are some nouns which resemble, in form, the above examples, but which have an unchangeable Qamets in their final syllable; and hence
 13), $\Delta p_{\mathrm{p}}$ as Part. of verbs " ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, \&c. Derivatives from verbs ${ }^{* \prime}$ also com-

3. Parad. III. embraces those nouns which have an immutable vowel in the final syllable, and a mutable Qamets or Tsere in the penultima. Exs. האמוּך , great,
 The last two take in the constr. st. the forms ị the first two syllables of $\boldsymbol{T}$ Tָּרוֹך being contracted into one.

Here also are to be distinguished nouns which resemble the above forms,

 xiv. 7. Many fluctuate, as צַּ week, see Lexicon.
4. Parad. IV. embraces nouns of two syllables with Qamets changeable in both. For the changes in these vowels, see $\S 90$, 2. Nouns of this form are very numerous. The influence of a guttural, especially on the form of the plur. cc ${ }^{\circ} r$., is seen in the second of the two examples given in ty ligm. Other examples are : ing gold, inger.

In like manner are declined nouns of equent form
 hair, צֵּ grape.

A few nouns of this class take a segholate form in ing onstr. st. singular; e. g. פָּרָּ, constr. st.
 Nos. 10 and 11). Qamets is immutable in both syllables of and שִּ
5. Parad. V. is properly a mere variation of the preceding one. The final Tsere is treated like the final Qamets in Parad.
 nouns, however, take the segholate form (No. VI.) in the constr.

 cases both forms occur, as כָּ heavy, constr. st. כְּ Ex. iv. 10


The original form appears in שְׁבן Men. xlix. 12, Ps. xxxv. 14 where Maqqeph follows. Examples of the first sort are: : שָׁun,

Some nouns of this form retain their Tsere in constr. st. plural ; e. g. ,
6. To Parad. VI. belongs the large class of nouns denominated Segholate forms ( 83 , No. 11). The chief peculiarity in their inflexion is, that before suffixes and in the constr. st. of the plural and dual, they resume their original monosyllabic form (comp. 890,2 ). The plur. absol. is derived not immediately from the form 10, 11, and below, Nos. 4 and 6) משְּלְ, plur. patach being changed to Qamets because the syllable in which it stands becomes an open one.

These forms may be arranged in three classes, the first having $A$, the second $E$, the third $O$, in the first syllable. The Paradigm exhibits under $a, b, c$, derivatives of the regular verb; under $d, e, f$, forms which have a guttural in the final syllable;
 rivative from a verb לה". Compare \& 84, IV. No. 11, V. No. 11.

## Remarks.

 only before suffixes, as in מַלְּׁ, hut also in Pause ( $\$ 20,4$ ), e. g. before $H$ local $(\$ 88,1)$ as $\mathfrak{i s}$ names like $\frac{3}{2}$,
 derivatives from verbs "y also take Qamets for their first vowel, as The original monosyllabic form is seen in the word $\mathfrak{N}: a$ valley. Many of



There are，however，nouns of this form，which take $i$ instead of $a$ and are inflected like



Nouns of the form $\dagger$ 方多，when their third stem－letter is a guttural，are pointed like （see Parad．$d$ ），seldom like $\square \Pi_{\text {23 }}$ ．It is to be observed，moreover，that in the hard combination（viz．when the second radical has quiescent $S h^{e} v a$ ， and when the third radical in simple $S h^{e} v a$ may be retained here also，as in ${ }^{\text {n }}$

 Seghol in the plur．constr：and before suffixes in the singular；e．g． 3 翟， ．צֶy．The monosyllabic form appears in אכָּ ．With He local Tsere is


3．The form 位（c）sometimes，though not often，takes Qibbuts in the



 14，where the Qamets－chatuph is made into a long vowel by Methegh，comp． §62，Rem． 4.

In the plural absolute most nouns of this form（even when they have not a guttural）take Chateph－Qamets under their first radical，as in the Para－



 word לֶֹix has，by a Syriasm，ancix for anh ini（see § 23，4，Rem．2）；but with a prefix it is pointed as tained，as

4．According to the same analogy are inflected the kindred monosyllabic forms which have their vowel between their last two stem－letters（ $\$ 83$ ，
 the Inf．usually without Dag．lene in 3 radical，not like

5．Only derivatives from verbs＂y and ${ }^{4}$＂y change their form（by con－ tracting the diphthongal $\iota w$ and $a y$ to $\delta$ and $\hat{e}, £ 24,2, b$ and Note ${ }^{*}$ ）in the constr．st．，as ลที่ ָ prop．mavoth，contracted nin．Before He local this con－

 ground－form，may become consonants in the course of inflexion，e．g．רוֹל，


6．Of segholates from verbs $\pi^{n} 3$ there are also properly three classes， distinguished by the $A, E$ ，and $O$ sounds（ $\S 84$, V．11）．E．g．אֲ，，

 $*$ instead of $\eta$ ，on account of the preceding Qamets（ $\$ 24,2, c$ ）；as צ צ צ ， plur．
7．To Parad．VII．belong nouns which have mutable Tsere in their final syllable，and are either monosyllabic，or have their preceding vowels immutable．It accordingly embraces all parti－ ciples in Kal（of the form（pֵep，not prot ，and those in Piël and Hithpaël，the form קợ（ 88 ，No．9），and several others，e．g．


The following deviations from the Paradigm are to be noted：a）Seve－ ral nouns take Pattach in the constr．st．（as in Parad．V．）；e．g．מְסֵּד， constr．st．． b）Before the suffixes which begin with a consonant occur such forms as
 retained in the plur．absol．as the Paradigm shows；it is also retained in


8．Parad．VIII．embraces all nouns which double their final stem－letter when they receive any accession at the end．The final vowel，in consequence of the sharpening of the syllable，is shortened（ $\$ 27,1$ ）．If the word is of more than one syllable，the vowel of the penultima conforms to the principles which regulate

 every form are found among those which are inflected according to this paradigm．Whether a noun belongs here cannot，there－ fore，be known from its form，though its etymology will gene－ rally decide．

Etymology refers to this Paradigm the following classes of nouns；viz．
 primitives which follow the same analogy，as $\square$




 15． plur． ．חַרִבּמִ．But there are also words of all these five forms which do not take Daghesh in the plural，and those which àre here adduced are to be regarded rather as exceptions to the prevailing usage．They are pointed out in the Lexicon．

Before suffixes having vocal $S h^{e}$ va as union－vowel（like ฑー，吚一），the Daghesh may be omitted；the same vowel is generally retained，however，
except that in words of the form pir it is more commonly Qamets－chatuph．
Pattach before the doubled letter is either retained，as コา，plur．ロּבִּ or is shortened into Chireq，as
9．Parad．IX．embraces derivatives from verbs
 pearance．Only the changes which affect the final syllable－（which is treated as in verbs＂b）are peculiar to this Paradigm， the vowel of the first syllable being treated according to the gene－ ral rules．

The original termination ${ }^{7}=$ for which $\pi-$ is substituted（ $\$ 24,2$ ，and $\S 74,1$, Rem．），is often restored and affects the inflexion of the word．Thus
 ָּקְ ロ cattle，Ex．xvii．3，and so perhaps also my maker Job xxxv．10．But forms also occur in which（as the Parad．shows）the $\pi$－falls away，as
 －Part．Pual），Is．xxv． 6.

Sect． 92.

## VOWEL－CHANGES IN THE FORMATION OF FEMININE NOUNS．

1．The termination $\Pi_{-}(\S 79,2)$ appended to a masculine noun affects the tone of the word，and consequently its vowels， in the same manner as the light suffixes beginning with a vowel （see $!90,2, a$ ）．The following are examples of the formation of feminines in the several Paradigms：
 III．לita great，fem ．



信 fem．

2．The vowel in the penultima is affected in the same man－


[^98] several ways, so that the termination of the word is formed after the analogy of the segholates:
a) Qamets and Pattach are both changed to Seghol, e. g.

b) Tsere in some words is retained, in others is changed to

c) Vowels which are immutable ( $i, 7, \square$ ) are exchanged for the corresponding mutable vowels, e. g.
 (also (וְּבְירָּ
Hence there are three segholate-forms for feminine nouns, $\Omega-$ (for $\Omega \div$ or $\Omega \frac{2}{\nabla}$ ), $\Omega_{-}$, and $\Omega=$, corresponding exactly to the forms of masculine nouns in Parad. VI. The same correspondence appears also in their intlexion in the singular. The termination $\boldsymbol{n}$ - (when the word ends with a guttural) always changes the preceding vowel to Pattach, e. g. מוֹרָ, fem.


Rem. 1. A rare form, $\pi-\frac{\pi}{\Pi}$ for , has already been noticed in § 73,

 in all the three places where it occurs, stands in connexion with the 2 pers. sing. fem. Preterite, it may perhaps be owing to a wish to copy after that Preterite form; for in connexion with the 3 pers. we find the regular form P\% Gen. xvii. 19 ; Is. vii. 14.
2. When masculines of Parad. VIII. receive the termination $\because *$, they necessarily omit the doubling of their final stem-letter; hence



Sect. 93.

## PARADIGMS OF FEMININE NOUNS.

The inflexion [or declension] of these nouns is more simple than that of masculines ( $\$ 90,3$ ), the addition of the feminineending having already occasioned as much shortening of the vowels as can be admitted. E. g. from Parad. III.

original accented termination $\Omega-$, it is not strange that they should similarly affect the pointing of words to which they are appended.
to the single Parad. $A$. In the plural no distinction is made between the light and the grave suffixes, the former as well as the latter being appended to the construct state.

These nouns have only three modes of inflexion, Parad. A (which is inserted merely for the sake of comparison) having no vowel-changes. A general view of these inflexions is presented in the subjoined table, which is followed by the necessary explanations.

Paradigms of Feminine Nouns.


## Explanations.

1. To Parad. $\boldsymbol{B}$ belong those feminines which have a changeable Qamets or Tsere before the feminine-ending $\Pi_{-}$. E. g.
 forms from the masculine nouns belonging to Parad. II. IV. V. and several belonging to Parad. IX.

For the formation of the new syllable in words having $\mathbb{S} h^{e} v a$ before their mutable Qamets or T'sere (which falls away by inflexion as in the Parad. צְדָׁק


Many nouns of this form, however, take in the construct state and before suffixes the coexisting form in $\Omega \leqslant$ or $\Omega \leq(\$ 87,2, b$,




Qamets is immulable in all nouns like (
 the form ( (\$ שְׁk the Lexicon.
2. To Parad. $C$ belong feminines derived from the segholateforms (Parad. VI). The two Paradigms are also analogous in their inflexion, the plural absolute in both taking Qamets under



Care must be taken not to confound with nouns of this class, those feminines of the same form which are not derived from segholätes, particularly


3. To Parad. $D$ belong segholate nouns formed by the addition of the feminine-ending $\curvearrowleft(92,2)$. These correspond, in the inflexion of the singular, to masculine segholates ( $\$ 91$. Parad. VI). To the examples in the Paradigm may be added, חִּ

Of the form which is not frequent in this class of nouns, woman, with suff. بִּשְׁne , is an example. The same inflexion, however, is exhibited by some words ending in $\pi *$, viz. those in which this termina-




Many nouns of this class borrow their plural from the coexist-

 rection, plur.

Sect. 94.

## LIST OF THE IRREGULAR NOUNS.

1. There are several anomalous forms of inflexion, chiefly occurring in single examples only, or at most in very few, which may be best exhibited in an alphabetical list of the words in which they are found. They require the more attention, because, as in all languages, the words which they affect are those in most common use.
2. Most of these irregularities of inflexion consist in the derivation of the construct state, or of the plural, not from the absolute state of the singular, but from another wholly different form ; precisely similar to what we have seen in the inflexion of the irregular verb ( 877 ). Compare $\gamma v \nu \eta$, $\gamma v v \alpha u x o ̀ s ; ~ v i \delta \omega \rho, ~ v i \delta \alpha z o s . ~$


 plur. constr. צָּתָּיכֶם , All these forms follow the analogy
 absol. is whith Dag. f. implicitum ( $\$ 22,1$ ), as if from
 is always used instead of (אֵחָי) see $\S 27$, Rem. 2, b.

אָחֶד one (for אחָּ, with Dag. f. implicitum, see § 22, 1, and comp. $\ddagger 27$, Rem. 2, b), constr. st. אַחַּ , fem. אַחַּ for
 xxxiii. 30, it takes the form (by apheresis, § 19, 3), as in Aramæan. Plur.



(\$ִ a man, a softened form of ( $\$ 19,5$, Rem.); in

[^99]the plur. it has very seldom צִישִׁים, the usual form being

 . Momp. in Aram. Com fathers.

 , בָּ





俭 son (for

 (בּנֶּ), constr. st.

בַּ daughter (for
 בּנְ
father-in-law, with suff. lav, compare w̦ brother,



plur. water (comp. § 86 b, 1 Rem. 2) constr. st. מַּים, and also מימימי, with suff. מֵימֵיכֶם.

צֶּיר city, plur. צָּרי , צָּרים (from which is still found in proper names).

פֶּ mouth (for פֶּ , from פֶּ to breathe), constr. st. (for


Sect. 95.

## NUMERALS. I. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

1. The Cardinal numbers* from 2 to 10 are substantives with abstract meaning, like triad, decad, $\pi \varepsilon \nu z \alpha \dot{s}$, though they are

[^100]also used adverbially ( $\$ 118$ ). Only (una, see 94 ), is construed as an adjective. Of the remaining numbers, each has different forms for the two genders, but usage employs the feminine form in connexion with masculine nouns, and vice versa.
 gender of the numeral agrees with that of the object numbered.

The numerals from 1 to 10 :

Masculine.
Absol. Constr.


Feminine.
Absol. Constr.
שֶׁ
ing the historical affinity between these languages and the Indo-Germanic, is the fact that in both families the numerals from 1 to .7 appear at first sight to be very similar. With نیׁu (prop. Sanskrit shash, [Celtic se, also chwech], ancient Persian cswas, Gr. Efs, Lat. sex,

 (Aram. rḅ̆), Sansk. tri, \{em. tisri, ancient Per. thri, fem. tisarb [Celt. tri], Gr. $\tau \varrho \varepsilon \pi \check{c}_{\rho}$, Lat. tres; with with $\cup \dot{\varepsilon} \check{-}$, Sansk. pantshan, Gr. $\pi \varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon} \tau \varepsilon$. [ $=$ Æolic $\pi \dot{\varepsilon} \mu \pi \varepsilon$, Welsh pump], Lat. quinque, [Gaelic cuig] ; with wa
 analysis makes these apparent coincidences again doubtful [but not in the judgment of Gesenius, Ewald. \&c.]; because there is great probability, on the other
 (prop, combination, multitude) are to be traced back to the pure Shemitish stems שָׁנָּ to repeat, gether (comp. to an equally obvious etymology.
 prosthetic, § 19, 4), hence the Daghesh lene in the Tav.

The other Shemitish languages exhibit the same peculiarity in respect to the genders. For the explanation of this phenomenon the following observations may perhaps suffice. These numerals, being originally $a b$ stract substantives, like decas, trias, had both the masculine and feminine form. The feminine was the chief form, and hence became connected with words of the predominant masculine gender; and the other form without the feminine ending was used with words of the feminine gender.* Usage made this a settled law in all the Shemitish languages. The exceptions
 nine termination is nianifestly occasioned by the masculine form of the word (גָּ
2. The numbers from 11 to 19 are expressed by adding to the units the numeral ten (in the form צָּשָּר masc., צֶשְׂרֵ fem.), written as separate words and without a conjunction. In such as are of the feminine gender (masculine in form), the units are in the construct state, which in this case indicates merely a close connexion, not the relation of the genitive (§114). These numerals have no construct state, and are always construed adverbially.

In the first two of these numerals are some deviations from analogy: the third shows the manner in which the rest are formed.


Unusual forms are שָּ עֲ eighteen, Judges xx . 25. Here the masculine too has the units in the constr. slate.

[^101]3．The tens from 30 to 90 are expressed by the plural forms of the corresponding units ；as as 40 ， 40 ， 30 ， （90）Twenty is expressed by עֶשְׂרִים，plur．of ten．＊They are of common gender，and have no construct state．When units and tens are written toge－ ther，the earlier writers commonly place the units first（e．g．two and twenty，as in Arabic）；but in the later writers the order is almost invariably reversed（twenty and two，as in Syriac）．Exs． Num．iii． 39 ；xxvi． 14 ； 1 Chron．xii．28；xviii．5．The con－ junction is always used．

The remaining numerals are as follows：


300 ת

2000 －


Ren．1．The dual form occurs in some of the units，with the effect of
 Gen．iv．15， 24 ；Ps．lxxix．12．The plural םאָּדִּ［comp．Welsh ychydig］ means some，some ferw，and also the same（iidem）；תiּnׂ decem），Ex．xviii．21， 25.

2．The suffixes to numerals are，as with nouns，prop．genitives，though we translate them as nominatives，as a

Sect． 96.

## NUMERALS．II．ORDINAL NUMBERS．

The ordinal numbers from 2 to 10 are expressed by the corresponding cardinals with the termination $\urcorner(\$ 85$ ，No． 5$)$ ， besides which another ${ }^{n}-$ is also sometimes inserted in the final

[^102]syllable. They are as follows: :

 the termination. $7 \boldsymbol{i}(\$ 85$, No. 4). The feminine forms have the

 yenth part. The same meaning is found also in forms like

For the manner of expressing other relations of number, for which the Hebrew has no appropriate forms, see Syntax, § 118.

## CHAPTER IV.

 OF THE PARTICLES.Sect. 97.

## GENERAL VIEW.

1. The particles, in general, serve to modify the thought expressed by another word or words, and to exhibit more nearly the relations of words, or of sentences, to each other. They are for the most part borrowed or derived ( $\S 30,4$ ) from nouns, a few from pronouns and verbs. The number of really primitive particles is very small. The origin of those that are not primitive is twofold: 1) they are borrowed from other parts of speech; i.e. certain forms of the verb, noun, or pronoun, are employed as particles, retaining more or less of their original signification, like the Lat. verum, causa, and the Eng. except, away ; 2) they are derived from other parts of speech, either $a$ ) by the addition of formative syllables, like Dמָּי by day from ロin ( $\S 98,3$ ), or most commonly $b$ ) by abbreviation occasioned by frequent use. This abbreviation is effected in various ways; and many of the forms resulting from it are so obscure in respect to their origin that they have generally been regarded as primitives ; e. g. 觡 only (prop. certainly, certe) for

Compare in German, gen from gegen, Gegend; seit from Seite; weil
(orig. a particle of time) from Weile; in English, since (old Eng. sithence), till, contr. from to while.

Such words suffer still greater changes in the Greek and Latin languages, and in those derived from the Latin; e. g. $\dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{o}, a b, a ; \xi \in, e x, e$; ad Fr. $d_{\text {; aut, Fr. ou, Ital. o; super, Ital. su.* }}$

In some instances the particle has been so much abbreviated, that it has lost its character as an independent word, and has been reduced to a single letter prefixed to the following word, as is the case with the preformatives of the Future ( $\$ 47,1,2$ ). This is the case especially with prepositions; e. g. the prefix $\underset{\square}{7}$


That this reduction of a whole word to a single letter has actually taken place, and is to be regarded as a part of the process in the formation of the language, is evident from the fact, that in the subsequent stages of this process, as exhibited in the later Hebrew, the Aramæan, and all the Shemitish dialects, such abbreviations became more and more frequent. Thus for $\overbrace{3}$ had come into use, and in Rabbinic authors the full form dom occurs; the of the Biblical Chaldee at a later period became $\begin{aligned} & \text { ? } \\ & \text { ? }\end{aligned}$ in modern Arabic we have hallaq (now) from haluaqt, lèsh (why?) from li-ayyi-sheiin, and many more. This view derives confirmation from the analogy of the western languages. Yet the use of the simplest particles belongs to the earliest epochs of the Hebrew language, or at least to the earliest documents in our possession.

It is not strange that the derivation of these particles, which often differ widely from the original form, should sometimes be obscure. This is the case, however, with but few of them; and it is but just to infer, that even in these some change has been effected analogous to that which may be readily traced in others.
3. Particles are also formed, but less frequently, by composition; as wherefore? for מַּהּ what taught? i. e., qua ratione ductus? comp. $\tau i \mu \alpha \vartheta \omega$,


More frequent is the combination of two words without contraction; as


[^103]SECT. 98.

## ADVERBS.

1. Primitive adverbs are those of negation, אל่ not $=o \hat{v}$, oủx, SNorn there [is] not, and some few others of place and time, as

These adverbs may at least for grammatical purposes be regarded as primitive, even if it be possible to trace them to other roots, particularly pronominal roots.
2. Examples of other parts of speech, which, without any change of form, are used adverbially, are:
a) Substantives with prepositions; e. g. بִּמְּׁ (with might), very greatly ; לְבַּ alone (prop. in separateness), with suff. לְבּד I alone (prop. in my separateness) ; שְּאֶחָּ ; was one), together.
b) Substances in the accusative (the casus adverbialis of the -

 together. Many of these substantives very seldom exhibit their original signification as nouns, e. g. סָביב (circuit), around; others have wholly lost it, as פְּבְ (length), long ago ; עוֹד (repetition), again, farther, longer.
c) Adjectives, especially in the feminine (which answers to the neuter), as 7 ? reste, ita (prop. rectum), $\boldsymbol{T}$,
 (prop. mirabilibus, sc. modis), שְיחוּדִית, Jewish, i. e. in the Jewish language.
d) Verbs in the Infinitive absolute, especially in Hiphil, which are also to be regarded as accusatives ( $\$ 128,2$ ); e. g. הַרְֵּּ (prop. doing much), much.
e) Pronouns, as $\begin{array}{r}\text { (ֶrop. this }=\text { at this place), here. }\end{array}$

See a list of the adverbs most in use, with their meanings, in § 147.
3. Other adverbs have been formed by the addition of the formative syllable $\square_{-}$(more seldom $\left.\square-\right)$ to substantives, as

 from

The termination $\square_{-}, \square-$, occurs also in the formation of substantives,

ladder (from 33 ). Such forms might therefore be regarded as denominative nouns used adverbially. The difference is not essential ; but, on the other hand, this termination is chiefly used to express an adverbial signification, and the analogy is very clear.
4. Adverbs formed by the abbreviation or mutilation of longer words ; such, for example, as ${ }^{\text {Fw }}$ only (prop. an affirmative particle, certainly, from
 ginated in the more full form לה Deut. xxxii. 6 .

This $\pi$ is pointed 1) generally with Chateph-Pattach, as $\operatorname{man}_{\boldsymbol{\sim}}^{\boldsymbol{\sim}} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ h hast thou set? (see the examples in § 150,2 ); 2) usually with Pattach and Daghesh forte (like the article) before a letter that has $\mathbb{S h}^{e} v a$, as Gen. xvii. 17; xviii. 21 ; xxxvii. 32, once without this condition, viz. ニַַּ in Lev. x. 19; 3) with Pattach (and Daghesh f. implicitum) before gutturals, as הֵֵַ shall I go? 4) with Seghol before gutturals that have Qamets, as הֶּ num ego? This interrogative particle always has its place at the beginning of the clause.
5. Some adverbs, involving a verbal idea, admit also of pronominal suffixes, which are here used generally in the same form

 still; where (is) he? The same applies to and and and behold! (prop. here, here is), with suffixes; as הִנְנִ, in pause



Sect. 99.

## PREPOSITIONS.

1. Most of the words which by usage serve as prepositions, were originally,
a) Substantives in the accusative case and in the construct state, so that the noun governed by them is to be considered as genitive, which is actually indicated in Arabic by the genitive ending: compare in German statt dessen, in Latin hujus rei causa. In the following examples the original signification of the noun is enclosed in parenthesis, and marked with an asterisk if it is still in use. Exs. אֵחֵ (hinder part*), behind, after ; הֵֶּיֶ (side*), close by ; intermediate space, midst*), between; (בְּ
behind, about ; זוּלַּ (remoteness, absence), besides ; (purpose), on account of ; מוּל before, over against ; מןץ (part), from, out of ; צֶּנֶד (that which is before), before, over against ; (progress, duration*), during, until; (upper part),
 (under part*), under, in place of.
b) Substantives in the construct state with prefixes ; as לִפְֵֵ (in face of), before ; ְְתִּ לְִּּ (in accordance with the mouth, i. e. the command*), according to ; ְְִִּלַל (in consideration), on account of, ? ? לַמַעַׁ (for the purpose), on account of.
2. Substantives used adverbially very readily take, in this

 during ; וְּדּ (

Sectr. 100.

## PREFIX PREPOSITIONS.

1. Of the prepositions given in the preceding section, $\boldsymbol{\text { on }}$ frequently written as a prefix, yet without wholly losing its Nun, which is represented by a Daghesh forte in the following letter, as מִיוּפַר from a forest.

On the ways of using מִּ the following particulars should be noticed. Generally it stands entire and apart only before the article, as הָּ ָָּ
 1 Chron. v. 18, and elsewhere in the later books, (like the usage of the Syriac): there is besides a poetical form (especially in Job). Most generally it is prefixed (as in מִּ̣.) by means of Daghiesh forte, which can be omitted only in letters that have $S h^{e} v a$ (according to $\S 20,3, b$ ); before


2. There are also three other prepositions, the most common in the language, which have been reducid by abbreviation ( $\$ 97,2$ ) to a single prefix consonant with the slightest vowel (Sh ${ }^{\text {eva) }}$; namely,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Min, at, on, with (from } \\
& \text { towards, to (from לָּ), }
\end{aligned}
$$

On the pointing of these prefixes we observe:

[^104]a) They have strictly $\mathrm{Sh}^{e}$ va, which is, however, changed according to
 feeble letters it follows the rules in $\S 23,2$ and $\S 24,1, a$, e. g. for .
b) Before the article they usually displace the $i s$ and take its pointing, as
c) Immediately before the tone-syllable, i. e. before monosyllables and words of two syllables that have the tone on the penultima, they have also Qamets ( $\$ 26,3$ ), yet not always, but only in the following cases, $\alpha$ ) before the Infinitives which have the fore-mentioned form, as $n$ กֶ̄ for to give,
 viii. 19, 亿ְּנְ
 (see § 101,2 ); $\gamma$ ) when the word is closely connected with the foregoing and not the following, e. g. הֶּ between water and water Gen. i. 6, particularly at the end of a clause; see the instructive example in Deut. xvii. 8, likewise nצֶּ? to eternity, but

d) With the interrogative $\boldsymbol{\text { Dr }}$ they are quite closely joined by means
 (Milel) for what? why? Comp. the Vav conversive of the future ( $\$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, 2$ ).






Sect. 101.

## PREPOSITIONS WITH SUFFIXES AND WITH THE PLURAL FORM.

1. As all prepositions were originally nouns ( $\oint 99$ ), they are also united with the pronoun after the manner of the nouns, i. e. the pronoun in construction with them takes the form of the
 (my vicinity) with me, (my place) instead of me, like mea causa, on my aci ount.

Rem.' 1. The preposition near, with (from אֵֵּ), is distinguished from , the sign of the definite accusative $(\$ 115,2)$, when suffixes are added, by the difference of pointing, the former making אִ, אִּ , אִּ , ロถุی, while the latter retains its original $o$ before most of the pronouns, as


[^105]Enc Kings and in Jeremiah and Ezekiel, with is incorrectly inflected rṇik, घתָix.
2. The preposition with takes Qamets before that the doubling of the Mem may be distinctly heard, as

3. It is but seldom that prepositions take the verbal suffixes, as 2 Sam. xxii. 37, 40, 48 (for which we find מַּחֵ in Ps. xviii. 37, 40, 48), Men. ii. 21, and Ps. xxxix. 11 (here for the sake of rhyming with accounted for by the fact, that a tendency whither is thought of, so under-me-ward 2 Sam . (as above), which is somewhat different from under me, me hither.
2. There is a tendency to obviate the extreme brevity and lightness of the forms resulting from the union of the prefix propositions ( $\$ 100$ ) with the suffixes, especially with the shorter ones, by lengthening the preposition. Hence to $כ ְ$ is appended the syllable in, and מִק is lengthened into (prop. a parte,
 with full vowel.
a) ? with suffixes :

## Sing.

Plur.

1. to me.

2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}m . \text { 说 to him. } \\ f . \text { 市 to her. }\end{array}\right.$


[^106]$\pm$ takes suffixes in the same manner, except that for the 3 pers. plur. we have also
b) $\ddagger$ with suffixes :

Sing.
1.
2. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}m . \\ f .\end{array}\right.$ -
3. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { m. } \\ f . \text {. } \\ \text {. }\end{array}\right.$

Plur.
ที่วิ่ as we. -

-     - 

c) with suffixes:

Sing.
Plur.



 what 1 , for as $I$ ) is in poetry appended to the pure prefixes $\exists_{1}, \exists, 3$, even
 In this case, poetry distinguishes itself from prose by the longer forms; in the case of קִ it has adopted the shorter ones, resembling those of the Syriac.

The preposition wath suff. makes מִּ מִּוּ from him, which comes from
 from $u s$, which comes from מִּen. The Palestinian grammarians wanted to distinguish the last by writing it מִe, but Aben Esra with justice objected. The form $\begin{gathered}\text { Prop always stands without Mappiq, and comes from }\end{gathered}$

3. Several of these prepositions, especially those which express relations of space and time, are properly plural nouns, like the Germ. wegen (for the ground of this, see $\S 106,2, a$ ) $\dagger \dagger$ They occur (some of them exclusively, while others have also the singular) in the plural construct state, or in connexion with those forms of the suffixes which belong to plural nouns ( $\$ 89,2$ ). These are:

[^107]אַחַּ אַחֵרי (prop. more frequently hinder parts), behind,
 אַ, \&c.

- אֶ, poet. also (regions, directions), towards, to, with


 tervals).

Prom, out of, seldom phen (plur. constr. st.), Is. xxx. 11.
(progress, duration, from (עָּדָה) as far as, unto, plur.
 last with Qamets).

עַ upon, over, constr. st. of that which is above (from
 ם , for which is also used in poetry.

กַּ under (prop. that which is beneath), with suff. in plu-


Sect. 102.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Conjunctions serve to connect words and sentences, and to express their relation to each other. Most of them were originally other parts of speech, viz.
a) Pronouns, as wֶּשֶׁ and that, because, for, the first being the common relative pronoun, and the last also having come from a pronominal stem ( $\$ 36$ ).
b) Adverbs, as and בֵּל (not), that not, (num?), if, ֵֵָ,
 (in the not yet), before that ; or with a conjunction added, as There is added that $=$ much more or much less.
c) Prepositions which are fitted by the addition of the con junctions and to show the connexion between proposi-


 may still be employed in this manner, even when the conjunc-



In like manner, all prepositions before the Infinitive may be rendered as conjunctions (§ 130, 2).
2. Even those words which are no longer in use except as conjunctions, seem to have been originally other parts of speech, particularly nouns, and they generally betray their affinity with verbal roots, as is (prop. desire, choice, from Prov. xxxi. 4) or, like vel, ve, kindred with velle ; 谓 (a turning away) that not. Even the only prefix conjunction ? and must perhaps acknowledge relationship with $\prod_{\overline{1}}$ a fastening, a nail.

The pointing of the conjunction $\eta$ is in many respects analogous to that
 liarities.
a) Usually it has simple $S h^{c}$ va ( $\dagger$ ).
b) Before words whose first consonant has simple Sh ${ }^{\mathrm{e}}$ va, the Vav takes the
 (yet with the exception of the case under $d$ ) before its cognate letters, the
 guttural), as (19n) Gen. ii. 12.
 $\$ 24,1, a$ ); and before $\eta$ and $\eta$ it is sometimes pointed with Chireq or

d) Immediately before the tone-syllable, it often takes Qamets, like $¥$, 3 , 3 , and with the same limitation ( $\$ 100,2, c$ ), especially when words are

 7 1 Kings xxi. 10.

Sect. 103.

## INTERJECTIONS.

1. Among the interjections are several primitive words which are merely natural sounds expressed in writing, as iñָ

2. Most of them, however, were borrowed from other parts of speech, which, by use in animated discourse, gradually acquired the character of interjections, as or or behold! (prop.




[^108]now, I pray (in Ethiop. an Imp. well now! come), a particle of incitement and entreaty (which is put after the expression it belongs to).*

- The particle are exhibited in different parts of the Syntax. A short statement must here suffice. 1, Rem.) ; b) after the Fut. in the first as well as in the third person (§ $125,3, b$ and $\S 16,1$ ) ; c) once after the Pret. (§ 124, 4, in Note) ; d) after various par-
 and teous discourse these particles are very frequently employed Gen. xviii. 3 ; xix. 7, 8, 19 ; 1. 17.


# PART THIRD. 

SYNTAX.

## CHAPTER I.

## SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

Sect. 104.

## RELATION OF THE SUBSTANTIVE TO THE ADJECTIVE,OF THE ABSTRACT TO THE CONCRETE.

In the Hebrew language, there is a want of adjectives in proportion to the substantives, and some classes of adjectives (e. g. those of material) are almost wholly wanting.* This deficiency is supplied by substantives, and especially in the following ways:

1. The substantive employed to express some quality in another is placed after it in the genitive. So constantly in desig-

 in like manner. צהחהָּ עוֹלָם an eternal possession, Gen. xvii. 8,
 precious stone Prov. xvii. 8. This construction was employed even in cases where the language supplied an adjective, e. g. פִּנְדי the holy garments. Ex. xxix. 29. Comp. un homme de bien.

Rem. 1. Less frequently the substantive which expresses a quality in another is followed by it in the genitive, as $\prod_{\square}^{\top}$ valleys, i. e. thy choice valleys, Is. xxii. 7, comp. xvii. 4, xxxvii. 24; Gen. xxiii. 6; Ex. xv. 4. With the substantive לं. totality, for all, this is the usual construction (see § 109, 1, Rem.).
2. Where the adjective would stand alone as predicate, the substantive sometimes takes its place; e. g. Gen. i. 2, the earth was desolation and emptiness ; Job iii. 4, let this day be darkness, Ps. xxxv.6, lxxxviii. 19, cx. 3;

[^109]Is. v. 12 ; Job xxiii. 2 , xxvi. 13. More seldom the substantive takes a preposition; as in Ps. xxix. 4, the voice of Jehovah is חַּפּ with power, for powerful.
2. In Hebrew many of our adjectives denoting a property, attribute, or habit, are expressed by circumlocution, viz. by an abstract noun or name of a thing, which designates the attribute, preceded by some general name of a person as the subject of the attribute. The subject is expressed by several words, viz.

 i. 8; תixam in in the dreamer, Gen. xxxvii. 19. c) by in son and daughter, e. g. .
 1 Sam. xx. 31 ; ;

A bolder construction, and merely puetic, is the use of the abstract in place of the concrete, as asthenterne worthless, for worthless, like scelus for scelestissimus; and at the same time for the plural, as קֶֶֶ bow for bowmen, Is. xxi. 17, קִצְּ harvest for harvesters, xvii. 5. So far as this is a common characteristic of language, see $\S 82$, Rem. 1.

Rem. That, on the contrary, forms of adjectives and concretes often take the abstract signification, especially in the Feminine, has been shown in § 83 ; comp. § 105, 3, b.

We may here remark also that the poets employ certain epitheta ornantia (which are at the same time perpetua) alone without the substantive;
 miah the horse; the moon. In Arabic this is yet far more common. Comp. merum for vinum, ǐvọ́ i. e. the sea Odyss. 1, 97.

Sect. 105.

## USE OF THE GENDERS.

Whether the Hebrew regarded a substantive as feminine is known partly from the feminine termination appended to it ( $\$ 79,1,2$ ), partly from its construction with a feminine predicate, and in most cases, though there are many exceptions ( $\ddagger 86$, 4), from the use of the feminine plural form. We have now to show for what purposes the designation of gender was employed.

1. The most natural use of it was with reference to the physical distinction of sex in men and beasts, but with several gradations, according as this natural distinction is more or less strongly indicated. The principal cases are the following, viz. $a$ ) when the female is indicated by an entirely different word, which, of
course, requires no feminine ending, as father, mother, in Heb.
 the addition of the feminine ending, as brother, מָה sister ;
 venca; is shown only by the construction (communia), like $\dot{0}, \dot{\eta}$ ßovis ; $\dot{\delta}$, $\dot{\eta} \pi \pi \alpha i ̃$, as as camel masc. Gen. xxiv. 63, but fem. xxxii. 16 ; 7 Job i. $14 ; d$ ) when, without regard to the natural distinction of the sexes, only one form is employed in the same gender to desig-
 a bear robbed of her young, Hos. xiii. 8 (yet it is construed as feminine in 2 Kings ii. 24); masc. ox, Ps. cxliv. 14, where the cow is intended.

Writers often neglect to avail themselves of forms in the language whose gender is indicated according to $a, b, c$, and use less distinct terms,
 xlii. 2; also 2 Iַ $a$ youth, for , in the Pent. and in Ruth ii. 21, comp. Job i. 19. Compare in German Gemahl for Gemahlin; in Arabic also, the more elegant written language avoids the feminine forms (e.g. הולב mistress, \% (ride), which are common in later usage.

That the designations of sex were used sparingly, appears also in other examples; viz. †'ink masc. architect, Prov. viii. 30, where wisdom (fem.) is meant (comp. artifex omnium natura, Plin. 2, 1); na dead body (masc.), spoken of the corpse of a woman, Gen. xxiii. 4, 6; מאֶחֵּ for a goddess, 1 Kings xi. 5, like Eng. friend, teacher, and Lat. auctor, martyr.

Among epiccene nouns are found names of whole species of animale, which the mind contemplated as masculine or feminine, according as they appeared strong and powerful, or weak and timid. E.g. masc. $\begin{aligned} & \text { चֶֶ̉ } \\ & \text { dog, }\end{aligned}$

2. The most constant use of the feminine ending for denoting the feminine gender, is found in the adjectives and participles.
3. Besides objects properly feminine, there are others (nearly the same which in Greek and Latin are neuter), for which the feminine form is preferred,* viz.
a) Things without life, for which the feminine, as the weaker, seemed to be the most suitable designation, as ֶָרֶך side (of the human body), thigh, the resemblance).

[^110]b) Hence abstract ideas, which at least decidedly prefer the feminine form, even when the masculine is also in use; as ทีy, help (§ 83, 11, 12). Adjectives when used abstractly or in a neuter sense (like to xoioj), commonly take the fem. form, as the right, Ps. v. 10 ; so also in the plur. nibis great things, Ps. xii. 4.
c) At times the feminine form is applied, when a dignity or office is designated, which borders on the abstract sense, as mininces (like
 vii. 57; Ezra ii. 55 . Even the feminine plural תizu fathers appears to have some reference to dignity. These words are, however, agreeably to their signification, construed with the masc. This use of words prevails more extensively in Arabic, 有thiopic and Aramæan, e. g. in Caliph A remote likeness is found in Lat. magistratus, Ger. Herrschaft, [ = Eng. lordship] for Herr [ = Eng. lord], Obrigkeit for Oberer, Ital. podesta, \&c.
 which wandereth for the wanderers; तלֶit (from masc. חלֶit) a company of
 חีֶix, Mic. vii. 8, 10, for the enemies. So in Arabic often. Comp. the poetic בַּ וּת $=$ = my countrymen. Examples of its application to things without


e). But on the contrary the feminine appears, as in Arabic, now and then to denote an individual of a class, when the masculine is used of the whole class, e. g. אְָ ships, fleet ( 1 Kings ix. 26, comp. 2 Chron. viii. 18),

 xl. 10) and other instances. But the difference is mostly overlooked in the Hebrew usage.
4. Many words (besides certain names of objects properly feminine, No. 1, a) are distinguished by the feminine construction, without the characteristic ending. They are chiefly embraced in the following classes:
a) Names of countries and towns, contemplated as mothers,* or nurses,
 so also the appellative nouns which denote locality, as town, under-world,

[^111]As names of people commonly remain masculine, it often happens, that the same word is used as masc. for the name of a people, and as fem. for the name of a country; e. g. יְהחהּ masc. Jews, Is. iii. 8, fem. Judrea, Lam. i. 3 ; צֵֶּ masc. Idumœans, Numb. xx. 20, fem. Idumea, Jer. xlix. 17.

But the names of people are also construed as fem. from a metaphorical use (like the German Pohlen ist im Aufstande), Job i. 15; 1 Sam. xvii. 21; Is. vii. 2; xxi. 2.*
b) Members and parts of the body in man or beast, 4 and 5 hand,

 viency as mere instruments, $\dagger$ and hence also words for inanimate instruments and utensils, as
 of these words and ideas have the same gender in the kindred dialects.
c) The words for light, fire, and other powers of nuture, as

 vi. $16, \& c . \ddagger$

## Sect. 106.

## OF THE PLURAL, AND OF COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

1. Besides the proper plural endings $(\$ 86,1,2)$, the language employs some other means for the expression of plurality, viz. a) certain words, whose appropriate signification is collective, designating an indefinite number of a class of objects, and having their corresponding nomina unitatis, or nouns which designate an individual of the class, as an ox (an individual of the ox kind), small cattle, viz. sheep or goats, הֶ an individual of the same, a sheep or a goat (comp. in Eng. twenty people) ; b) the feminine - ending $(\$ 105,3, d): c)$ nouns which have the proper signification of the singular, but which are also used as collectives; e.g. man, the human race Gen. i. 26, wִּ collect. for men,
[^112]בin the enemy, for enemies. These words take the article, when all the individuals of the class are included ( $\$ 107,1$ ).
2. On the other hand, the terminations which properly express plurality, are employed in the expression of other kindred ideas, so that the Hebrew often uses plural forms where other languages employ the singular. The plural is used to denote-
a) Extension* of space and time : hence the frequent use of it to express portions of space, regions or places, as $\operatorname{a}$
 at the head; certain portions of the body, which are parts of its extension, $\dagger$
 םupt old age; and finally states, qualities, which are permanent or of long
 lessness.
b) Might and power, so far as these were originally conceived of as something distributed and complex (pluralis excellentio). So particularly
 tic view and then passed over to the "God of gods," or in a monotheistic view and as such was intended to denote God's might in its manifestations), then a few times anשúr the Holy (God) Hos. xii. 1; Prov. ix. 10; xxx. 3 (comp. Jos. xxiv. 19 and Chald. penates always in the plural, even when only one image is meant 1 Sam .




Rem. 1. The use of the plural, according to letter $b$, is very limited and does not extend beyond the above words, which are used also in the singular as well. On the construction of these plurals with adjectives, see $\S 110$,

2. The plurals under $a$ are also limited [in common prose] to few words, but in poetry there is a more extensive use of them, e.g. שְׁựura tenebra

3. Wheri a substantive is followed by a genitive, and this

[^113]compound idea is to be expressed in the plural, it is done a) most naturally by the plural form in the governing noun, as an anjun


 Ps. xxix. 1, sons of Gods for sons of God; c) even only in the noun governed, as as family, מֵּית families Num. i. 2 foll., precious fruits Cant. iv. 16, vii. 14. On this remark, which has hitherto been overlooked by grammarians, compare also Judges vii. 25 (the head of Oreb and Zeeb for the heads), 2 Kings xvii. 29 ; Dan. xi. 15. Here the two words by which the compound idea is expressed, are treated as a nomen compositum.*

The connexion with suffixes is also effected according to letter c, as os corum for ora corum Ps. xvii. 10, יְמִּימָּ Ps. cxliv. 8, where we also can say their mouth, their right hand.
4. To the modes of expressing plurality belongs also the repetition of a noun, with or without the conjunction. By this is indicated the whole, all, every, as ain ain day by day, every
 Esth. iii. 4, דיֹר וָדוֹר every generation Dcut. xxxii. 7; hence distributively, as each flock by itself Gen. xxxii. 17 ; also a great multitude, even with the plural form, Gen. xiv. 10, , חֵּמָּ asphalt-pits, 2 Kings iii. 16, Joel iv. 14 ; finally diversity, more
 two kinds of weights Deut. xxv. 13, לָ רָ a double heart Ps. xii. 3,1 Chron. xii. 33.

Not here but to rhetoric belongs impassioned repetition in exclamations. With many writers this appears to have but little emphasis, and to have become a habit (e. g. Is. xl. foll.).

Rem. 1. Names of substances viewed as wholes (e.g. the metals, liquids, \&c.) very seldom occur except in the singular, as 71. wine (yet water is expressed by the plural, but in Arabic it is singular). But when the word is used to express portions of a substance, it may take the plural form, as pieces of silver Gen. xlii. 25; comp. Is. i. 25. So of grain, as $\boldsymbol{H}$ in the grain.

[^114]2. Even in cases where the plural is regarded as merely poetic, we are to connect with it the idea of real plurality, e. g. Job xvii. 1, the graves are my portion, equivalent to grave-yard, many graves being usually found together, xxi. 32 ; घーロan seas for sea Job vi. 3; comp. Gen. xli. 49.

## Sест. 107.

## USE OF THE ARTICLE.

The article ( $\because$ ַㅗ, noun (like $\dot{o}, \dot{\eta}$ tó in Homer), yet its force was so slight that it was used almost exclusively as a prefix to the noun.

The stronger demonstrative force of (this) is still found in some connexions, as ם הַ time. As an indication of this demonstrative sense we may also consider 1) the fact, that sometimes it stands for the relative before the verb, e. g.
 25 ; comp. Gen. xviii. 21 ; xlvi. 27; Job ii. 11; so also तֶּ (xy 1 Sam. ix. 24 ; 2) the case, where it serves mostly before a participle to point back to a subject noun, in order to give it more prominence, Ps. xix. 10, the laws of Jehowah are truth . . . . v. 11, that are precious: here the article has nearly the force of also in Ps. civ. 3 (three times הַמְקרֶה he that lays beams); Is. xl. 22, 23 ; xlvi. 6; Gen. xlix. 21; Job xli. 25; and still stronger in Ps. xviii. 33,
 Neh. x. 38.

The article is employed with a noun to limit its application in nearly the same cases as in Greek and German [or. English]; viz. only when a definite object, one previously mentioned, or already known, or the only one of its kind, is the subject of discourse. E. g. Gen. i. 3, God said, Let there be light (רוֹ), verse 4, and God saw the light (רוֹאָּתֶ); 1 Kings iii. 24 bring

 example in Eccles. ix. 15.

In such cases the article can be omitted only in poetry, where it is used, in general, less frequently than in.prose; e. g. מֶֶֶ for


Special cases in which the article is commonly employed, are,

1. When the name of a class is used collectively to denote all the individuals under it, as the righteous, the unrighteous, Gen.
xviii. 25 ; the woman for the female sex, Eccles. vii. 26 ; the Canaanite, Gen. xiii. 7; xv. 19, 20, like the Russian, the Turl.*
2. When a common term is applied by way of eminence to a particular person, and thus becomes a kind of proper name, like
 tan ; first man, Adam; ; ָָּ, ירְהּוֹד (yet this word is often so used without the article, because it approaches the nature of a proper name, $\S 108,1$ ); רַּנָּ viz. that around the Jordan.
3. Hence it is also used with actual proper names of rivers, mountains, and of many towns, with reference to their original
 the Nile (prop. the river), (hand Lebanon (prop. the white mountain), , ָדֶ the town Ai (prop. the stone-heap). But its use in connexion with names of towns is unfrequent, and in poetry is generally omitted. (Comp. § 108, 1.)

Rem. 1. The Hebrew article certainly never stands for the indefinite article; but the Hebrew conceives and expresses many ideas definitely, which we are accustomed to conceive and express indefinitely. This is most commonly seen,
a) In comparisons, where fancy paints the image of an object and causes a more distinct perception, e. g. white as the wool, as the snow, red as the scarlet Is. i. 18, as the cattle Ps. xlix. 15, he hurls thee like the ball Is. xxii. 18, the heavens are rolled up like the scroll xxxiv. 4; comp. x. 14; xxiv. 20; xxvii. 10; liii. 6; Ps. xxxiii. 7. Instructive examples in Judges xiv. 6; xvi. 9 ; Is. xxix. 8,11 . Yet where the noun compared is already made definite by an adjective, the article does not stand any more than when a geni-
 Is. xxix. 5. Exceptions are rare, as a
b) In the names of classes of objects which are universally known, e.g. the gold, the silver, the cattle, the water. Hence Gen. xiii. 2, Abraham was very rich in the cattle, the silver, and the gold, where most languages would omit the article. He had much, is the Hebrew's conception, of these well-known treasures. Comp. Gen. xli. 42; Ex. xxxi. 4; xxxv. 32; Is. i. 22.
c) Often also in the expression of abstract ideas (like tò intıxóv, la modestie), hence of physical and moral evils, as the falsehood Is. xxix. 21, the blindness Gen. xix. 11, the ciarkness Is. Ix. 2.

On these principles, it is easy to explain the use of the article in special cases, as in 1 Sam. xvii. 34 ,

Focks (comp. xò̀ húxov, John x. 12); 1 Kings xx .36 ; Gen. viii. 7, 8 ; xiv. 13.
 on a day, but the day, (at) the time, viz. as referring to what precedes.
2. The vocative also takes the article, and for the most part in those
 high priest, Zech. iii. 8; 1 Sam. xxiv. 9.

Sect. 108.

## The article is regularly omitted,*

1. Before the proper name of a person or a country (Tָּיִחיד, (pִypu), and also of a people, when it coincides with the name of the founder of the race or the name of their country (יְשָׂרָּ, (x)). On the contrary Gentilic nouns admit it both in the sing.
 Canaanite (collect. § 107, 1).
2. Before substantives, rendered definite by a following genitive or a suffix, which renders the use of the article unnecessary; e. g. God's word, my fath father.

When the article is by way of exception used in these two cases, some special reason can generally be assigned for it. E. g.
a) In some cases the demonstrative power of the article is required; as
 ver. 11; Jos. viii. 33, half thereaf.
b) When the genitive is a pr. name which does not admit the article

 Assyria Is. xxxvi. 16; comp. Gen. xxiv. 67; Jer. xlviii. 32; Ez. xlvii. 15 (comp. xlviii. 1).
c) In others the connexion between the noun and the following genitive is somewhat lonse, so that the first forms a perfect idea by itself, while the second conveys only a supplemental idea relating to the material or pur-

 xxviii. 39.
3. Before the predicate, which from its nature is indeterminate, as Gen. xxix. 7, עוֹד

[^115] yา who call the grood evil ; lxvi. 3.

Yet there are cases where the nature of the predicate requires the article, Gen. ii. 11 הן it is the encompassing, i. e. that which encompasses; xlv. 12, that my mouth (is) the speaking $=i t$ is my mouth that speaketh; Gen. xlii. 6; Ex. ix. 27: Num. iii. 24. See another case where the article stands before the predicate in § 107, beginning.

## Sect. 109.

1. When a compound idea, expressed by one noun followed by another in the genitive, is to be made definite, it is done by prefixing the article to the noun in the genitive; as אִישׁ מִלְחָּ

 ג הַנָּבִיא the word of the prophet Jer. xxviii. 9.

The article is put in the same way when only the genitive is definite, as Man a part of the field 2 Sam. xxiii. 11 (see on the contrary Jos. xxiv. 32 ; Gen. xxxiii. 19), אִישׁ רָאָּ $a$ husbandman Gen. ix. 20 (on the contrary construction, in order to avoid the ambiguity, see § 112.
N.B. This explains the use of the article after 35 prop. totality, the whole. The article is inserted after it to express definitely all, whole (like tous les hommes, toute la ville), and is omitted when it is used indefinitely for of all kinds, any thing; or distributively for every (lout homme, a tout prix);* e.g. פָּ wָ all men, the whole earth, prop. the whole of men, the whole of earth; but $\mathfrak{F}$
永 3 every living thing $=$ all living.

Even compound proper names may be resolved again into two words, and the second then takes the article; e. g. Benjaminite ( $(85,5)$,


Exceptions where the article stands before the governing noun and not before the genitive, see in $\S 108,2, b$. So in the later style, Dan. xi. 31; comp. xii. 11.
2. When the substantive has the article, or (what is equivalent) is made definite by a following genitive or a suffix, the adjective, as well as the pronoun $\pi$, substantive, takes also the article. Gen. x. 12, הָּנִיר הַמְּלֹלד the

[^116]great city; xxvii. 19, אn הַ
 of Jehovah.

Not very unfrequent is the use of the article
a) With the adjective alone, which then serves to make definite the noun, e. g. "הַשִּ bin, Gen. i. 31, day the sixth $=$ the sixth day (on the contrary ${ }^{7}$ Ein a second day, i. 8); xli. 26; 1 Sam. xix. 22; Ps. lxii. 4; civ. 18; Neh. iii. 6; ix. 35 ; Zech. xiv. 10. So also שֶׁgen Gen. i. 21; ix. 10. This is the usual construction when the adjective is properly a participle, as Jer. xlvi. 16 שֶרֶב הּיֹֹנְה the sword that doeth violence.
b) It seldom stands only with the substantive, as in Ez. xxxix. 27; 2 Sam. vi. 3 (perhaps to be emended), yet rather frequently in connexion with the pronourss selves, as the noun is nade definite only by a suffix, as 1 Kings x. 8 ; comp. Ex. x. 1; Jos. ii. 20; Judges xvi. 5, 6, 15. Purposely indefinite is
 would be the evil report).

Sect. 110.

## CONNEXION OF THE SUBSTANTIVE WITH THE ADJECTIVE.

1. The adjective, which serves to qualify the substantive, stands after it, and agrees with it in gender and number, as


Rem. 1. It is very seldom that the adjective stands before the substantive, only when some emphasis rests on it; Is. xxviii. 21; liii. 11; Ps. Ixxxix. 51 ; cxlv. 7 ; compare also Ps. xviii. 4. Merely poetic is the form
 shields (comp. v. 21; Is. xxxv. 9) ; or with a collective noun instead of the plural, wָּ whe the poor of men=the poor, Is. xxix. 19; Hos. xiii. 2. Similar is the Lat. canum degeneres.
2. When substantives of the feminine gender or those which incline to it ( $\$ 105,4$ ) take two adjectives, the feminine form sometinies appears only
 1 Sam. xv. 9; Rem. 1.
N. B. In regard to number, the nouns in the dual take adjectives in the plural, as צֵיבֵים רָׁוֹת lofty eyes Prov. vi. 17; Ps. xviii. 28; Job iv. 3, 4; Is. xxxv. 3. Moreover the constructio ad sensum is frequent. Collectives are construed with the plural in 1 Sam. xiii. 15 ; Jer. xxviii. 4 ; but the pluralis majestatis ( $\$ 106,2, b$ ) on the contrary with the singular, as $\begin{aligned} \text { antran }\end{aligned}$ Pי! Pr Ps. vii. 10; Is. xix. 4 (but with the plur. 1 Sam. xvii. 26).
2. An adjective, when its meaning is more fully determined by a substantive, is followed by it in the genitive case,* as
 Ps. xxiv. 4, یַגְמֵי צֶּפֶׁ sorrowful in spirit Is. xix. 10. (Comp. the construction of the Participle, $\S 132$.) But verbal adjectives govern also the cases of their verbs, as Deut. xxxiv. 9, רָכְמָּ full of the spirit of wisdom (where is accusative).
3. On the adjective as predicate of the sentence, see $\S 141$ foll.

## Sect. 111.

## of APPOSITION.

1. By this is meant the placing together of two substantives, so that one of them (commonly the second $\dagger$ ) serves to limit or
 1 Kings vii. 14 ; בְעֶנָּה בְהתילָּה a damsel (who is) a virgin Deut.


Also two adjectives may stand in apposition, in which case the first modifies the sense of the second, as nixaz nina nin pale white spots
 spot.

## Sect. 112.

## of THE GENITIVE.

1. Apart from the obsolete ending of the genitive (explained in §88), the Hebrew regularly expresses the genitive relation by the construct state (see $£ 87$ ). When several successive genitives depend on each other, the repetition of the constr. st. is often avoided by adopting a periphrastic construction (see § 113); yet
 years of the life of my fathers Gen. xlvii. 9; ;菛 the residue of the number of the bows of the mighty ones of the children of Kedar Is. xxi. 17. $\ddagger$
[^117]In these examples (comp. also Is. x. 12, Job xii. 24 and others) all the nouns but the last are in the construct state. Yet we find al=o examples where the genitives, being subordinate to the main thought and serving merely as a periphrasis for the adjective, stand in the absolute state, while only the following genitive is dependent on the main thought. Thus in Is.
 the smitten of wine, 1 Chron. ix. 13: Ps. lxviii. 22.

Similar is the rare case, when a noun has first an adjective and then a genitive after it, as צָּסָּ unhewn stones of the quarry, 1 Kings
 gold, Esther viii. 15.
2. The noun in the genitive expresses not only the subject, but at times also the object. E. g. Ez. xii. 19, wrong which the inhabitants did, on the contrary Obad.vs. 10,

 xviii. 20. Other applications of the genitive are: שֶּ way to the tree Gen. iii. 24, קְצִיֵּי סְדם judges like those in Sodom Is. i. 10, זְבְחֵי אֶלִּחִים sacrifices pleasing to God Ps. li. 19.
3. Not unfrequently the genitive construction also stands in
 בַּת עַּםּי Jer. xiv. 17, Is. xxxvii. 22.

Rem. 1. Between the noun in the constr. st. and the following genitive is found in rare cases a word intervening, as in Hos. xiv. 3, 2 Sam. i. 9, Job xxvii. 3 (in all these passages the word intervenes after 3 , comp. also Is. xxxviii. 16).
2. Proper names, as being in general of themselves sufficiently definite, seldom take a genitive for fuller specification; yet this is the case with
 Aram of the two rivers =, Mesopotamia; so also Mancin צincin Jehovah of hosts for Jehovah the Lord of hosts.
same genitive. Thus if the Hebrew wanted to express Noah's sons and daugh-

 men 2 Kings ii. 12, or perhaps
 Hellenistic Greek too appears, in some cases, to have followed the former of these Hebrew constructions. Thus in Matt. vi. 33 we have tir $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \beta \alpha \sigma \tau \lambda \varepsilon i \alpha y$ toũ



* In Latin the genitive is similarly used after injuria (Cæs. B. Gall. 1, 30), metus (like metus hostium, metus Pompeii), spes, and other words. Comp. Aul.


Sect. 113.

## EXPRESSION OF THE GENITIVE BY CIRCUMLOCUTION.

Besides the indication of the relation of the genitive by the construct state ( $\$ 87$, and $\S 112$ ), there are certain periphrastic indications, chiefly by means of the preposition $?_{1}$, denoting the relation of belonging, which is not unlike that of the genitive. Accordingly we find

1. ?
 which to her father belonged); and also where there would be several successive genitives (to avoid the repetition of the constr. st., but see § 112, 1),
 ה The song of songs of Solomon Cant. i. 1; Gen. xl. 5 ; 2 Sam. ii. 8 ; 1 Chron. xi. 10. (Hence the Rabbinic designation of
 the usual sign of the genitive).
2. (without צְֶּut), which also denotes the idea of belonging, and hence the genitive of possession,* as הַהּ xiv. 16. This is used particularly $a$ ) when the governing (or first) noun
 x ri. 18 (whereas a priest of the most high God Gen. xiv. 18, xli. 12, אֹרֶ a friend of David (was Hiram) 1 Kings v. 15, David (i. e. belonging to him as the author), and elliptically Ps. xi. 1, xiv. $1 ; b$ ) when several genitives depend on one substantive, e. g. a portion of the ficld of Boaz Ruth ii. 3; 2 Kings v. 9,

 closely connec ${ }_{\text {od }}$ nouns which form one conception are joined by means of the constr. site, while there is between them the $\}$ indicating a looser connexion (yet 'mp. § 112, 1); c) when the governing noun has an adjective, as
 ชุnin ain on the sein and twentieth day of the month Gen. viii. 11.
[^118]
## Sect. 114.

## FARTHER USE OF THE CONSTRUCT STATE.

The construct state, as it serves in general to put two nouns in close connexion, is in the flow of speech used not only for the genitive relation, but also

1) Before prepositions, particularly in poetry and oftenest when the governing word is a participle, e.g. before $\frac{7}{3}$, as אגָּ לכְנוּ Is. lvi. 10, xxx. 18, Ps. lviii. 5, Job xviii. 2; before ן p, as weaned from milk Is. xxviii. 9; before in in Judges v. 10.
2) Before the relative pronoun, e. g. קֶּ מֶּ the place where -, Gen. xl. 3 ;
 the city where David dwelt Is. xxix. 1, 1 , מְקוֹם לֹא יָדֶע the place of him who knows not God Job xviii. 21, 1 Sam. xxv. 15, Ps. xc. 15. Comp. $\AA 121,3$, Rem. 1.
3) Rarely even before Vav copulative, as חָּכְמַּת וָדַעּת Is. xxxiii. 6, xxxv. 2, li. 21 ;
4) Also in other cases where close connexion is to be expressed : thus at times we have אַחֵּ one for 2 Sam. xvii. 22, Zech. xi. 7, and mereover Is. xxviii. 4, 16. Compare besides the constr. st. in numerals, as in thirteen, fourteen ( $\$ 95,2$ ), and in the adverb ( $\$ 98,2, c$ ).

Rem. While in the above cases the absolute st. could generally stand quite as well as the construct, yet there are also constructions where the constr. st. might be expected rather than the absolute. Thus for example
a) in geographical names like אָבָּ בֵּיח מַּנְכָּה Abel Beth-Maachah* (i. e. Abel of Beth-Maachah, to distinguish it from other places called Abel). Comp. on the contrary §112, Rem. 2.
b) in some other instances where the connexion is not close enough for the genitive relation, so that it must rather be considered as apposition or the second noun as an adverbial accusative (§ 116). Here belongs Ez. xlvii. 4, ロִּּ Is. $x x x .20$, פַּם שַּ

[^119]c) in the expression nick תixבָּ God (the God) of hosts.

## Sect. 115.

## EXPRESSION OF THE OTHER CASES.

1. As the Hebrew language has lost the living use of caseendings ( $\$ 88$ ), we must consider what substitutes it adopted for expressing the different relations of case. The nominative is always to be known only from the syntactical construction. On the modes of expressing the genitive, see $\AA_{8}^{8} 112-114$. The dative and ablative are periphrastically expressed by means of prepositions, the former by ? , the latter by (from, out of) and (in, $a t$ ) ; but the Shemite regards the nouns dependent on these prepositions as genitives, because these particles were themselves originally nouns. In Arabic they have also the genitive termination. Comp. § 99, 1.

On the use of the dative particle $\}$, which in many cases serves to express also our genitive, see § $113,1.2$.
2. The accusative frequently has still its ending $\underset{T}{-}$, when direction or motion to a place is expressed ( $\$ 88,1$ ). Else it is, like the nominative, to be known only from the structure of the sentence. Yet we may often know it by the preceding or orn or K (before suffixes also ©ik), which, however, is not used before a noun, except when that noun is made definite by the article, the construct state, a suffix, or otherwise (Gen. vi. 2,2 Sam. xiii. 17, xviii. 18), or is a proper name. Such is the usage in prose;
 (on the contrary צרֶֶ רְטָמַמּים Gen. ii. 4, vi. 10, Ex. i. 11).*

[^120]The cases are rare in which stands before an indeterminate noun, but somewhat oftener in the loftier style, where the article also may be omitted before a noun that is definite accorling to the sense ( $\$ 107$ ), as Prov. xiii. 21, ニ־p. dom in prose, like 1 Sam. xxiv. 6 ; Ex. ii. 1 (where, however, the noun is made definite by the context).

## Sect. 116.

## USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

The accusative is employed, 1) to express the object of the transitive verbs ( $\$ 135$ ); but also 2 ) in certain adverbial designations, where it is no longer governed immediately by the verb. We shall here treat only of the latter.

The second of the above usages is undoubtedly derived from the first, and to this still belong several constructions in which the accusative is commonly supposed to be used adverbially ( $\$ 135,1$, Rem. 3). But we are not therefore authorized to reject altogether the adverbial use of the accusative.
Accordingly the accusative is employed :

1. In designations of place: a) in answer to the question whither? after verbs of motion, as let us go out into
 xx. 36, Ps.cxxxiv. 2; b) in answer to the question where? after verbs of rest, as as בֵּית אִִָיץ in the house of thy father, Gen. xxxviii. 11, , iñ in the door of the tent, xviii. 1. It is then employed also with reference to space and measure, in answer to the question how far? Gen. vii. 20, the water rose fifteen cubits.

In both cases, especially the first, the accusative ending $\pi-$ is often appended, on which see $\S 88,2$. The first relation may also be expressed by $\frac{3}{3}$; but we are by no means to suppose that where these particles are omitted the construction is incomplete.
2. In designations of time: a) in answer to the question when? as ${ }^{2}$ הַיָּ the day, i. e. on the day, then, or on this day, to-day ; צֶרֶב at evening, 6 ; the thirteenth year (in the 13th year)

Jos. xxii. 17. Dan. ix. 13. Yet in other places, which some reckon with the foregoing (e. g. 2 Sam. xi. 25, Neh. ix. 32, and even I Sam. xvii. 34), it may be considered as a loosely governed accusative, which it certainly is when connected with the passive (see § 140, 1, a). In Ez. xlvii. 17, 18, 19 אֵת stands for 7 N , and perhaps ought to be so emended in the text, comp. verse 20.
 barley harvest 2 Sam. xxi. 9 ( $K^{e}$ thibh); b) in answer to the question how long ? (ung ix days (long) Ex. xx. 9.
3. In other adverbial designations: Gen. xli. 40, only in respect to the throne will I be greater ; 2 Sam. xxi. 20,
 number) ; 1 Kings xxii. 13, שֶׁ with one mouth i. e. with
 der i. e. with one mind. With a following genitive, י? יְאֵּת שָׁמִּיר for fear of thorns, Is. vii. 25 ; Job i. 5 , he brought burnt-offerings放 according to the number of them all. Here belong also
 an ephah of barley Ruth ii. 17, שְׁצֹרים two years time Gen. xli. 1. Comp. also § 114, Rem. b.

Similar cases in connexion with verbs are explained $\S 135$ and $\S 136$. By the same process carried still farther, many substantives have come to be distinctly recognised as adverbs ( $\$ 98,2, b$ ).

Rern. Similar reference to place, time, \&c., may be denoted by a noun when it is connected with ${\underset{i}{1}}^{(a s, \text { according to, after the manner of ), but in }}$ that case the prefix alone is in the accusative relation, while the noun is to be considered in the genitive. Thus a) of place; pasture, Is. v. 17, comp. xxviii. 21; after the manner of the stone i. e. as in stone (the water is hid when frozen) Job $x \times x v i i i .30, ~ x \times x .14$; иp
 7, comp. xxiii. $15 ; b$ ) of time, especially in the forms 日in! as the day $=$ as in the day, Is. ix. 3; Hos. ii. 5; as as in the days of - Hos. ii. 17; ix. 9; xii. 10 ; Amos ix. 11; Is. li. 9. c) With other references, as in Is. i. 25, $\boldsymbol{I}$ woil purge away thy dross manner of fire $=a s$ by fire.

Rarely another prepnsition is used after such a $\underset{1}{ }$, e. g. . i. 26 ; 1 Sam. xiv. 14.

It is, moreover, obvious that a substantive with may stand either for the accusative of the object or for the nominative relation.

## Sect. 117.

## MODES OF EXPRESSING THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERlative.

1. When the comparative is to be expressed, the particle $(\square)$ ) is prefixed to the word with which comparison is made, e.g. 1 Sam. ix. 2,

 any of the people, 1 Sam. x. 23.

In other cases also the particle $\boldsymbol{p}$ is employed in expressing pre-eminence (e. g. קִּ יִּ pre-eminence over, Eccles. ii. 13; comp. Deut. xiv. 2), which the Hebrew conceives as a taking from, marking out. Compare the Latin ablative with the comparative, also the etymology of the Latin words eximius, egregius, and in Homer éx $\pi \dot{\alpha} \nu \tau \omega \nu \mu \dot{\alpha} \lambda \iota \sigma \tau \alpha$, I1. 4, 96, and merely $\left.\epsilon^{2 x} \pi \alpha \sigma \dot{\varepsilon} \omega v, 18,431\right)$. Hence the signification more than connects itself with the fundamental signification out from. (Compare the use of 3 in comparisonis, Job xxiii. 2; Ps. cxxxvii. 6.)

The correlative comparatives, such as greater, less, are expressed only by great, little, Gen. i. 16.
2. The several modes of expressing the superlative are in principle the same: thus in all of them the positive form, by means of the article, or a suffix, or a following genitive, is made to designate an individual as pre-eminently the possessor of the quality expressed (comp. le plus grand). E. g. 1 Sam. xvii. 14, and David was ${ }^{7} \boldsymbol{T}$ three great (ones), i. e. greater, \&c., Gen. xlii. 13; Jon. iii. 5, from the greatest among them (lit. their great one) even unto the least among them (lit. their little one).

A kind of superlative in substantives of quality is made by the construc-


## Sect. 118.

## SYNTAX OF THE NUMERALS.

1. The numerals from 2 to $\mathbf{1 0}$ (which are properly substantives, but may also be used adverbially, $£ 95,1$ ) are connected with substantives in three different ways. They stand either a) in the constr. st. before the substantive (the object numbered being accordingly in the genitive), triad of days ; or b) in the absol. st. before it (the thing numbered being then considered as in the accusative or in apposition), (three sons; or c) in the absol.st.after it, as in apposition with the object numbered (a usage of the later books,
 ters, 1 Chron. xxv. 5.
 xxv. 7, 17, a hundred years, are equally common.
2. The numerals from 2 to 10 are joined, with very few exceptions (e.g. 2 Kings xxii. 1), with the plural. But the tens (from 20 to 90 ), when they precede the substantive, are regularly joined with the singular (in the accusative), and when they follow it in apposition, they take the plural. The first is the more
 cities; on the contrary 3, seq. The plural may be used in the first case (Ex. xxxvi. 24, $25)$, but the singular never occurs in the second.

The numerals from 11 to 19 are joined to the singular form (in the accusative) only with certain substantives, which there is frequent occasion to

 xii. 6. With this exception, they are joined to the plural; and in the later books they then stand after the substantive ( 1 Chron. iv. 27 ; xxv. 5).
3. Numerals compounded of tens and units (like 21,62 ) take the object numbered either after them in the singular (in the accusative), as before them in the plural, as in the later books (Dan. ix. 26); or the object is repeated, with the smaller number in the plural, with the larger in the singular, as Gen. xii. 4,
芜 one hundred and twenty-seven years.
4. Beyond 10 the ordinals have no peculiar forms, but are expressed by those of the cardinals, which then stand either before the object numbered, or after it as genitive, as ם on the seventeenth day Gen. vii. 11, רִּ twenty-seventh year 1 Kings xvi. 10. In the latter case, the word is sometimes repeated, as in Gen. vii. 11; 2 Kings xiii. 10 .-In numbering days of the month and years, the forms of the cardinals are used, even for the numbers from 1 to 10 , e.g.

 the month, , Lev. xxiii. 32.

Rem. 1. The numerals take the article when they stand without a substantive, and refer to subjects mentioned before, as הַשְׁנִּ the two Eccles.
 be explained on the principle stated $\$ 109,1$.
2. Certain substantives employed in designations of voeight, measure, or

か. time, are commonly omitted after numerals; e. g. Gen. xx. 16, গo n nk a thousand (shekels) of silver ; so also before
 bread. Thus ain is omitted Gen. viii. 5, and vini, viii. 13.-The number of cubits is often stated thus: מַאָּ בָּבָּ a hundred cubits, prop. a hundred by the cubit Ex. xxvii. 18.
5. Numbers are expressed distributively by repetition of the cardinals, as two by two, Gen. vii. 9, 15. One time, once, is expressed by thrice. The same may be denoted also by the fem. forms of the cardinals, as אַ once, also בְַּּ same way, as as ixu a second time Gen. xxii. 15 ; Jer. xiii. 3 ; Ez. xxi. 19 .

## CHAPTER II.

## SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN.

Sect. 119.

## USE OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN.

1. When a personal pronoun is the subject of a sentence, like a noun in the same position, it does not require for its union with the predicate a distinct word for the copula, when this consists simply in the verb to be ( $\$ 141$ ), e. g. אָּכִי דָרֹאֶה $I$ (am) the


 xli. 26 .
2. The pronoun of the third person frequently serves to connect the subject and predicate, and is then a sort of substitute for the copula or the verb to be. E. g. Gen. xli, 26, the seven grood
 nom this is God's gift. - Sometimes such a pronoun in the third person refers to a subject that is of the first or second person, e. g. הַמָּה הוּא מַלְלִּי thou art my king Ps. xliv. 5, where

Nit at the same time points to the predicate and makes it prompnent (prop. thou (art) he, my ling); Is. xxxvii. 16; Neh. ix. 6, 7 ; Deut. xxxii. 39. (Comp. in Chaldee Ezra v. 11).
3. To the general rule ( $\$ 33,1$ ), that the separate pronouns are in the nominative and the suffixes in the oblique cases, there is but one exception, viz. when the personal pronoun in an oblique case is to be repeated for the sake of emphasis ( $m e, m e$; thy, thy), it is expressed the second time by the separate form, which is then in the same case with the preceding suffix, to which it stands in apposition. E.g. in the accusative, Gen. xxvii. 34, bless me, me also, comp. Prov. xxii. 19 ; oftener in the genitive, with a nominal suffix xxi. 19, thy blood, yea thine (prop. sanguis tui, utique tui), Prov. xxiii. 15 ; Ps. ix. 7. So also in apposition under the influence of a preposition (i. e. in the genitive, according to 99,1 , comp. § 151, 4), as Hag. i. 4, לֶֶָם for you, for you ; 1 Sam.


 Seth, to him also ; x. 21.
4. The suffix to the verb is properly always in the accusative ( $\$ 33,2, a, \S 57$ ), and is the most common form of expressing the accusative of the pronoun (see Rem.). In certain cases, however, it is used through an almost inaccurate brevity of expres-

 (the fatherless) grew up to me as to a father, Ez. xxix. 3 comp. verse 9 .

Rem. The accusative of the pronoun must be expressed by 5 N ( $\$ 115$ ), the sign of the accusative, $a$ ) when the pronoun, for the sake of emphasis, precedes the verb, as ix ix Num. xxii. $33 ; b$ ) when the verb has two
 2 Sam. xv. 25. The use of this sign with the pronoun is not confined, however, to these cases; see Gen. iv. 14; xv. 13.
5. The suffixes to nouns, which are properly genitives ( $\{33$, $2, b$ ), and supply the place of possessive pronouns,* express, like

[^121]nouns in the genitive ( $\$ 112,2$ ), not only the subject but also the
 fear of him, Ex. x.x. 20.
6. When one noun is followed by another in the genitive, so that they together express but one complex idea, a suffix which refers to this whole idea is appended to the second of the two nouns (compare the analogous position of the article, $\AA 109,1$ ). This occurs most frequently in the case (mentioned $\$ 104,1$ ), where the second noun is used to express a quality of the first and serves for an adjective to it ; e. g. Ps. ii. 6, חַ my holy mount ; Is. ii. 20; xxxi. 7,

We seldom have the construction 27 ; comp. xviii. 7. So also Lev. vi. 3 ; Ps. xxx. 8.

Rem. 1. Through a certain inaccuracy, which probably passed from the colloquial language to that of books, masculine pronouns are sometimes used in reference to feminine substantives (Gen. xli. 23; Ex. i. 21). The reverse also occurs, but more rarely, Deut. v. $24 ; 2$ Sam. iv. 6.
2. The accusative of the pronoun, as object of the verb, is often omitted, where it can be easily supplied from what has preceded, e. g. the accusa-
 7ing and he told it, Gen. ix. 22; but also after other verbs, e.g. Gen. xxxviii. 17, till thou (send) it ; xxiv. 12, let (it) meet me.
3. There is, on the contrary, a redundancy of expression, when the noun for which the pronoun stands is itself employed in apposition after it, e. g. Ex. ii. 6, she saw him, the child; Ez. x. 3, דֶּ when he went in, the man; 1 Sam. xxi. 14. So also Gen. ii. 19, , living creature; and with repetition of the preposition, Josh. i. 2.
4. In some iustances the force of the nominal suffix or possessive pronoun has become so weak, that it has almost ceased to exist. E. g. $m y$ Lord (prop. my lords, see § $106,2, b$ ), used first in addressing God (comp. Ps. xxxv. 23), then without regard to the pronominal suffix, the Lord,
 ฯדָּ fix, as in Is. xlv. 20. Similar is-hear, ye nations פָּ Micah i. 2.
the genitive, as in $1 \mathrm{Sam} . \mathrm{xvii}, 40$. (Comp. the analogous mode of expressing the genitive, § 113.)-In this case there is sometimes a pleonastic use of the suffix, as rivi

* See Gesenii Thesaurus Linguæ Hebrææ, p. 329. Compare the Phœeni-
 Dame.

Sect. 120.
OF THE DEMONSTRATIVE AND INTERR nouns.

 tives] be joined to substantives, and shoul $k$ then take the article,
 [comp. in vulgar English in them days for in those days]. See an exception in § $109,2, b$.

When employed in this way,
 but אnּ =aviós, is, indicates (like the article, § 107) an object already mentioned or known [the former angivering to this and the latter nearly to that]. The distinction is clearly s icen in Judges vii. 4, of whom I say to thee, "this (הְֶ) shall go with thee," thut one (הוֶ) shall go with thee; and of whomsoever I say to thee, "this ( n ) shall not go with thee," that one ( N ( N )

 (Gen. xwninis), but [that day] means the day or time of which the hiftorian has just made mention (Gen. xv. 18; xxvi. 32), or the prophet just riredicted (Is. v. 30 ; vii. 18, 20), and goes on to relate or to predict.
2. The demonstrative तֶו (also it , זוֹ), has also, especially in poetry, the force of the relative
 hast destined for them. It is even employed (like to give a relative sense to another word ; e. g. Ps. lxxiv. 2, Mount Zion 该

[^122]for any thing whiakes the constr．st．E．g．Ex．iv．13，men me by the have also the speci ${ }^{\text {n）}}$ ，thou woil send；Hos，i．2，Minnent rinn the begin－ ）Jehovah spake；Ps．Lxxxi．6，
On the use of nถุRnero not ；lxv．5；Lam．i．14；Jer．xlviii．36．Comp．

> are joined on also by means of the copula ( $\dagger$ ), e. g. $\therefore$ ! $\ddagger$ and that hath no helper.

## RELATIVE PRON

Sect． 122.
1．The pronoun
tion，i．e．to give a relative ${ }^{\text {T }}$ THOSE PRONOUNS FOR WHICH or pronouns．E．g．诗 thert
 same manner the Hebrew forms ${ }^{\text {ns }}$ Niphal and Hithpael；b）by pronoun，who，which，viz．fix to a noun or preposition），e．g．
解 to whom．carried him up with Accusative，$\uparrow$ ix，mñix him，her ；ink Jer．vii．19；Ez．xxxiv．2，
 With prepositions，隹 therein，炡 wherei．21；Jer．xxxvii． 9 ； wherefrom．
Genitive， The accusative whom may，however，be expressed by＇：very alone，as in Gen．ii． 2.

Rem．1．The Hebrew is able in this way to give a relative sense to the pronoun of the first and second persons in the oblique cases，for which in German［and English］the third must be used．E．g．Gen．xlv．4，צֵשֶׁn xim；
 Hos．xiv．4．But in the nom．of the 1st and 2 d person this is admissible also in German，e．g．der ich，der du，die wir，where der stands for welcher， and serves（like the Heb．אֶֻֻּ）merely as a sign of relation．

2．The word xֻשׁ is commonly separated from the one which it thus
 Only seldom are they written together as in 2 Chron，vi． 11.
2．Before wֶֻu we are often to supply the personal or demon－ strative pronoun（he，she，that，see §122，2），as in Latin is before qui．E．g．Num．xxii．6，ראָ תָּ Is．lii．15，אֵשֶׁר לֹא שָׁמְע：（that）which they have not heard．The pronoun is almost always to be supplied where a preposition stands before supplied pronoun，and the relative takes the case which is required by its connexion with the following part of the sentence．

## OF THE DEMONSTRATIVE AND INTERI $h$, hence, $a s$.* NOUNS.

be supplied; as בַּ בְאֶׁט in

1. The pronoun of the third person $\$$.
 tives] be joined to substantives, and shoulession of the relative, as
 [comp. in vulgar English in them dayelative is the position of the an exception in $\S 109,2, b$. preceding word. This omis-

When employed in this way, אוּ is ry) takes place,


 that $]$. The distinction is clearly. ${ }^{\circ}$. "this (Iָּ) shall go with thee," womp. vs. 5, where whomsoever I say to thee, " $t$, 1 , where with the same words is shall not go. So also ir
Hence (Gen. x the hist ${ }^{\text {pret }}$ th not $\sin$; Job iii. 3; Ex. xviii. 20. Frequently in fecifications of time, when it would have the signification when; Ps.iv. 8, הֵַּ in in the time (when) their corn and newo wine are abundant ; Jer. xxxvi. 2.
c) When there is also an omission of the personal or demonstrative pronoun (No. 2); e. g. Job xxiv. 19, Sheol [carries away] חָטָּה (those who) sin ; comp. vs. 9. The pronoun thus omitted may include the idea of place or time, as 1 Chron. xv. 12, ¡ֶ to (the place which) I have prepared for it; comp. Ex. xxiii. 20.
Rem. 1. When the pronoun to be supplied would be in the genitive, the
 with us to the relative itself, viz. Is. xlvii. 1?, for


$\dagger$ The Arabic omits the relative when the substantive to which it refers is indeterminate, as above; but inserts it when the substantive is determinate. In the latter case, the Hebrew commonly inserts it in prose (see Jer. xxiii. 39; Ex. xiv. 13); though it is sometimes omitted, Ex. xviii. 20 ; 2 Sam. xviii. 14; especially in poetry, Ps. xviii. 3 ; xlix. 13, 21 ; Deut. xxxii. 17 ; Job iii. 3.
preceding noun takes the constr. st. E. g. Ex. iv. 13, hand (of him whom) thou wilt send; Hos. i. 2, הּוֹּ
 (of one whom) I knew not; lxv. 5; Lam. i. 14; Jer. xlviii. 36. Comp. § 114, 3.
2. Relative clauses are joined on also by means of the copula ( $\eta$ ), e. g. Job xxix. 12, the orphan, iิ

Sect. 122.

## MODE OF EXPRESSING THOSE PRONOUNS FOR WHICH THE HEBREW HAS NO PROPER FORMS.

1. The reflexive pronoun myself, thyself, himself, is expressed, a) by the conjugations Niphal and Hithpael; b) by the personal pronoun* (as a suffix to a noun or preposition), e. g. Gen. xxii. 3, Abraham took two of his servants inṣ with him, for with himself; 1 Sam. i. 24, she carried him up $\begin{gathered}\text { map̣ with }\end{gathered}$ her, for with herself; Gen. viii. 9; Jer. vii. 19; Ez. xxxiv. 2, 8,$10 ;$ c) by circumlocution with substantives, especially e. g. . ตּבְּרְ within herself (prop. in her inner part), Gen. xviii. 12.
2. The personal or demonstrative pronoun is omitted (comp. \$ 121, 2) before ive in all cases, both singular and plural: very seldom it is expressed by the interrogative pronoun, as • טֶּ that which, Eccles. i. 9; iii. 15.

Rem. 1. Each, every one, with reference to a person, is expressed by
 lxxxvii. 5 ; with reference either to persons or things, by 35 , commonly without the article ( $\S 109,1$ ); by repetition also by the plural
2. Any one, some one, is expressed by Ex. Ex. xvi. 29; Cant. viii. 7; and by wָָּ Lev. i. 2; any thing, something (especially in connexion with a negation), by
 (comp. § 120, 3).
3. Self; the same, self-same is expressed, in reference to persons or things, by דָאִישׁ חַחהּא Job i. 1, this same man; in reference to thinge, the noun تֶֶֶ prop. bone, body (in this case fig. for essence, substance)
 חַּ i. e. in the midst of his prosperity (Job xxi. ${ }_{2} 3$ ).

[^123]The Arabic, in a similar manner, expresses the idea self by eye soul,
 head. Comp. in middle High German mîn lîp, dîn lip.
4. The one - the other (alter - alter) is expressed by repeated, or by with wroth or friend, and where the feminine is required, by masc. and fem. forms are used also with reference to inanimate objects of the same gender. The same form is used to express one another, as Gen.
 from one another; Gen. xi. 3, they said xxvi. 3, five curtains shall be joined mñinusion wix ivi to one another.
5. Some is often expressed by the plural form alone, as
 sunt qui Neh. v. 2-4.

## CHAPTER III.

## SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

Sect. 123.

## USE OF THE TENSES IN GENERAL.

From the poverty of the Hebrew language in the means of expressing the absolute and relative divisions of time ( 840 and 48), we might naturally expect some variety in the uses of the same tense.

We are not to infer from this, however, that there was scarcely any well-defined and regular use of the two existing tenses; on the contrary each of them has its distinct sphere, as already intimated in the first Note on page 103. The Preterite serves to express what is finished and past, whether it actually belongs to the past, or properly lies in the present or even in the future, and is only represented as past, that it may thus appear as certain as if it had already happened, or that it may stand, as relatively earlier, in comparison with a subsequent event. The Future [called also Imperfect and Tempus Infectum], on the contrary, expresses what is unfinished, hence what is continued and in progress (even in the past), what is coming to pass and
about to be. The Future is, besides, especially used in a modified form ( $\$ 48$ ) for expressing the relations of the optative, the jussive, and the subjunctive. We must further add the peculiarity of the Hebrew diction mentioned already in $\S 48 \mathrm{~b}$, namely, that of joining, by means of Vav conversive, futures to a preterite and preterites to a future. Fuller information on these points will be found in the following sections:

It is a false view, which regards the so-called Preterite and Future not as tenses, but as designed originally to express distinction of mood** rather than relations of time.

As examples of the Preterite and Future used expressly to denote oppo-
 $i t$, and I will (still) bear (you); and vs. 11, 7 依 IM M M have spoken it and will bring it to pass, I have purposed and will accomplish it ; Deut. xxxii. 21; Neh. i. 12.

## Sect. 124.

## THE USE OF THE PRETERITE.

The Preterite stands :

1. In itself and properly, for absolutely and fully past time
 has declared to thee? vs. 13, why hast thou done this? Comp. verses $14,17,22$. Hence it is used [for the historic tense] in the narration of past events, Gen. i. 1, in the beginning Ged created (Pret.) the heaven and the earth (comp. xiv. 1; xxix. 17). Job i. 1, there was (Pret.) a man in the land of Uz ; ii. 10.

For this latter purpose the Future with Vav conversive is commonly used in continued narrative (see $8126 \mathrm{~b}, 1$ ).
 which he had done ; vs. 5, Jehovah had not yet caused it to rain; vii. 9 ; xix. 27 ; xx. 18 ; xxvii. 30 ; xxxi. 20 ; Jonah i. 5.
3. For our Present, where this denotes $a$ ) a condition or attribute already long continued and still existing, as



[^124]xxxiv. 5 ; Gen. xxxii. 11 ; or $b$ ) a permanent or habitual action (often in the expression of general truths) as $\begin{gathered}\text { הָמַרְחִּי I say, I mean, Job }\end{gathered}$ vii. 13, Ps. xxxi. 15, Judges ix. 9, xi. 13.-Ps. i. 1 ; happy the man, who walks (ךָּדֶ) not in the counsel of the ungodly, nor
 scorners; x. 3, cxix. 30, 40.

Here (in the expression of our present) the Preterite and the Future are used with equal propriety, according as the speaker views the action or state expressed by the verb as already existing before, but still continuing or perhaps just now ending, or as then first about coming to pass, in progress, or perhaps occurring at the instant (comp. $\$ 125,2$ ). Accordingly we find in nearly
 xxxi. 35. In such cases the two tenses are often employed interchangeably, e. g. Is. v. 12, Prov. i. 22, Job iii. 17, 18.
4. Even for the Future, in protestations and assurances, in which the mind of the speaker views the action as already accomplished. being as good as done. In German [and English] the Present is sometimes used, in this case, for the Future. So in stipulations or promises in the way of a compact, Gen. xxiii. 11,
 the field, particularly in promises made by God, Gen. i. 29, xv. 18, xvii. 20. Also in confident discourse, especially when
 thou deliverest me, O Jehovah, Ps. xxxi. 6; hence frequently used in lively representations of the future and in prophecies, e. g. Is. ix. 1, the people who walk in darkness see (7\% (7) a great light; v. 13, therefore my people goes into captivity ( ( verses $14,17,25,26 ;$ xi. $1,2,4,6,10$. (In these cases also the Preterite may be interchanged with the Future, see e. g. Is. v.). Comp. No. 6.

In Arabic the Preterite, made still stronger by the particle קַ, is likewise employed in emphatic pronises, \&c. They say, I have already given it to thee, meaning, it is as good as done.*

[^125]5. For those relative tenses, in which the past is the principal idea, viz. a) for the Imperfect subjunctive (which is, however, expressed by the Fut. also, § 125, 5); e. g. Is. i. 9, we should have been [essemus] as Sodom, we should have resembled Gomorrha; Job iii. 13 ; b) for the Pluperfect subjunctive, Is. i. 9, לֶּ לֵּי הוֹחִיר if he had not left; Num.
 be, if we might but die! § 133, 2); Judges xiii. 23; Job x. 19,
 the Future perfect (futurum exactum), e. g. Is. iv. 4, when he shall have washed away, prop. he has washed away ;
 if I shall .be), then I am bereaved (the language of desponding resignation).
6. In all the foregoing cases we have viewed the Preterite in its independent use, when not connected with preceding verbs. But its use is no less diversified, when it is joined to preceding verbs by the conjunction ? (Vav conversive of the Preterite). It then takes the tense and mood of the verb going before, and it shifts the tone forward as explained above in $£ 48,3$. Hence it stands
a) most frequently for the Future, when that tense goes before it, e. g. Gen. xxiv. 40, Jehovah will send his angel וְחְִּלִיחַ ַָּּׁ and prosper thy way (prop. and then he prospers). Judges vi. $16 ; 1$ Sam. xvii. 32. Here the Future, in the progress of the discourse, passes over by means of the Pret. into easy description, and the sense of the Pret. follows the usage explained in No. 4 above. Also
b) for the Present subjunctive, when the preceding Future form has this sense (according to $\$ 125,3$ ); e. g. Gen. iii. 22, lest he put forth his hand and take and eat (prop. and so takes and eats); xxxi $\bar{\imath}$; xix. 19 ; Num. xv. $40 ;$ Is. vi. 10.
c) for the Imperative, when a verb in that form goes before ; e. g. Gen. vi. 21,

[^126]and then thou gatherest); xxvii. 43, 44. As in the case under letter $a$, the command here passes over into a description of that which is to be done. At times the Pret. in this sense is put separate from the Vav, as in Ps. xxii. 22.
d) for the past or the present time, according as the preceding Pret. or Fut. may require.


#### Abstract

Rem. 1. The Pret. with Vav conv. relates to futurity, also when it is not preceded by a Future tense, but by some other indication of futurity. Exod. xvi. 6, 7, "עֶun at even, then ye shall know; xvii. 4, yet a little while 

The Pret. with Vav conv. may be thus employed in the sense of the Fut. (and Imp.), even when there is no indication of futurity, e. g. after antecedent clauses which imply $a$ ) a cause, or $b$ ) a condition. Comp. .or letter a, Num. xiv. 24, because another spirit is with him Mrench and (therefore) I will bring him; and without the causal particle, Gen. xx. 11,  me (for because there is, \&c.) ; xlv. 12, 13; Ex. vi. 6. Comp. Ps. xxv. 11,   conditional particle ( $\$ 152,4, a$ ), Gen. xliv. 22 , should he leave his futher תیֵּ then he (the father) vould die; xxviii. 29; xlii. 38 ; Is. vi. 7, lo, this  various specifications of the present we find appended by means of $?$ with the Pret. those of the future (c. g. Judges xiii. 3, thou art barren אn in in   iii. 9, I am Ruth ถּุ v. 5, the people are many in the land Eņi rest? Gen. xxix. 15; 1 Sam. xxv. 10, 11). 2. A very frequent formula in prophetic language (like and it came to pass in the language of history) is and it will come to pass. This is found both with a preceding Future and without it (see Rem. 1),  


## Sect. 125.

## USE OF THE FUTURE.

The significations of the Future are perhaps still more various than those of the Preterite. But the language has here a more definite expression for certain relations of mood, inasmuch as it has (according to $\S 48$ ) a shortened and a lengthened form of the Future, the former in the jussive sense and the latter in the cohortative (see § 126). The Vav conversive also has a very ex-
tensive influence on the force of this tense ( $\$ 126 \mathrm{~b}$ ). Yet the shortening, as has been shown in treating of the verb, is not obvious in all the forms, and in other respects, also, there is some uncertainty, so that the common form occurs in almost all the relations for which the shortened form is especially designed.

The Hebrew Future forms, in general, the exact contrary of the Preterite, and expresses, accordingly, what is unfinished, what is coming to pass and future, but also what is continued and in progress at any point of time, even of the past (see the first Note on $\$ 47$ ).

Hence the Future stands :
 there shall not again be a flood; also in narrative for the future with relation to some past point of time, as 2 Kings iii. 27, the first-born who was to reign (regnaturus erat).
2. For present time; 1 Kings iii. 7, לֹא אדָצ I know not ; Is.
 especially in the expression of permanent states, which exist now and always will exist, hence also in the expression of general truths, e. g. Gen. xliii. 32, the Egyptians may not eat with the Hebrews ; Job iv. 17, is man more just than God? ii. 4; Prov. xv. 20, בָּ often so in Job and Proverbs. Here the Preterite may also be employed ( $\$ 124,3, a, b$ ).

In the same formula is used sometimes the Preterite, and sometimes the Future, but not necessarily without difference of meaning, e. g. Job i. 7,
 thou come?
3. For a series of relations which in Latin are expressed by the Subjunctive, especially by the Present Subjunctive. In this way is expressed what is future or what is expected to occur, according to a subjective view or according to some objective condition. It stands
a) For the Subjunctive after particles signifying that, that not

 xxxviii. 16, what wilt thou give, צֵלֵי that thou

[^127]mayest come in to me? Deut. iv. 1, לְמַּקֹן that ye may live ; יִשׁׁלַח יָדֹ
b) For the Optative; Job iii. 3, יראבּ pereat dies ; vs. 5, 6, 8 ; vi. 9. In this sense the lengthened or shortened form is properly used ( $\$ 126,1,2$ ), followed often by the particle
 Vincian aliv. 18, might thy servant speak, for let thy servant speak. Yet, at times, the full form is employed even where the shortened one clearly exists, e. g. Gen. i. 9 ; comp. xli. 34 ; אֵ ירְחֶה Job iii. 9.
c) For the Imperative, the place of which it always supplies in negative commands (prohibitions). When dehortatory it is preceded by wank as fear not Gen. xlvi. 3; Job iii. 4, 6, 7 (and in this connexion with לs the jussive or shortened form is proper to be used); when it expresses prohibition, by * used for the Imperative when the third person is required, and for the Imperatives of the passive voice, so far as the
 light be Gen. i. 3 ; יוּng let him be put to death Ex. xxxv. 2. Comp. \& 126, 2.
d) For the so-called Potential, where we use may, can, might,

 could we know?
4. Even for time past. It is thus used chiefly in these cases:


 Before thou camest forth, Jer. i. 5. (Compare the use of the Pret. and Fut. in the same sentence, 1 Sam. iii. 7.)
b) Often also of customary or continued action, and in extended representation, like the Imperfect of the Latin and French languages. Repeated or 'customary action, as it involves the conception of something yet to be, is properly expressed by the Future. Job i. 5, thus did (יֵּשֶׁ) Job con-

[^128]tinually ; xxii. 6, 7, 8; xxix. 12, 13; Judges xiv. $10 ; 1$ Sam. i. 7; 1 Kings v. 25 ; Is. x. 6 ; Ps. xxxii. 4 ; xlii. 5. Yet also
c) Of single acts that are done and past, where the Preterite might be expected. Such is the case, at least, in poetry, on the same principle as we employ the Present tense in lively representations of the past. Job iii. 3, perish the day
 I not from the womb? iv. $12,15,16 ;$ x. $10,11$.
5. For the Imperfect Subjunctive, especially in conditional sentences (the modus conditionalis) both in the protasis and
 ...I should not fear; Job v. 8, I would apply unto Goa iwere I in thy place); ix. 21, I should not know myself (if I spoke otherwise) ; x. 18, I had died, and no eye had seen me; iii. 16 ; vi. 14. In this case, also, the shortened form often occurs ( $\$ 126,2$ ).

Sect. 126.

## USE OF THE LENGTHENED AND SHORTENED FUTURE (COHORTATIVE AND JUSSIVE).

1. The Future as lengthened by the ending $\pi-$ (the Cohortative) is used almost exclusively in the first person; and is expressive of purpose or endeavour (see §48,3):. Hence this form is employed, a) to express excitement of one's self, or a determination, with some degree of emphasis. Ps. xxxi: 8 ; אָנִילָה
 break asunder. Also, with less emphasis, in soliloquy; Ex. iii. 3, express a wish, a request (for leave to do something); Deut. ii:
 pass through, Ipray thee. c) When a purpose is expressed, and the verb is commonly joined by to a preceding Imperative; Gen. xxvii. 4, bring it hither, eat ; xxix. 21 ; xlii. 34 ; Job x.20. Less frequently $d$ ) it stands in conditional sentences with if, though, expressed or implied; Job xvi. 6 ; xi. 17 ; Ps. cxxxix. 8. Moreover it stands, f) frequently after Vav conversive ( $\$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, 2$ ).

In Jeremiah this form is used to give force and emphasis of almost every kind ; ii. 25 ; iv. 19, 21 ; vi. 10.
2. The shortened Future (the Jussive) is used principally,
 lxi. 11, תin proferat Gen. i. 24, also joined to a preceding Imperative by (comp. No. 1, c), Ex. viii. 4, Entreat Jehovah าרָּ Judges vi. $30 ; 1$ Kings xxi. $10 ; b$ ) in prohibition, dissuasion, or negative entreaty, as ne confidat, Job xv. 31; xx. 17. c) Frequently in conditional sentences (like the Arabic usage) both in the protasis and apodo-

 vii. 3 ()

As the jussive form of the Future is far from being always orthographically distinguished from the usual form ( $\$ 48,4$ ), its force may occasionally be doubtful, especially as the poets now and then employ the shortened form where the usual one might stand without materially altering the sense. The jussive form, in that case, expresses rather a subjective judgment, such as we indicate by it may be, it might, could, should, must be, according as the sense and context of each passage may require.

## Sect. 126 b.

## USE OF THE FUTURE WITH VAV CONVERSIVE.

1. The Future with Vav conversive (טְּ? and he killed, $\$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, 2$ ), stands only in connexion with something preceding. Most commonly a narrative begins with a Preterite and then proceeds in the Future with Vav conversive; which is the most usual way of relating past events.* E. g. Gen. iv. 1, and

 27, 28 ; xiv. 5, \&c. ; xv. 1, 2 ; xvi. 1, 2; xxi. 1, \&c. ; xxiv. 1, 2; xxv. 19, 20, \&c. ; xxxvi. 2-4; xxxvii. 2.†

[^129]2. If there be, however, any connexion with an earlier event, the Fut. with Vav conv. may even begin a narrative or a section of
 and it happened Gen. xi. 1; xiv. 1; xvii. 1; xxii. 1; xxvi. 1;


This use of the Future is found also, especially, $a$ ) after an antecedent clause, e.g. after becruse, as in 1 Sam. xv. 23, because thou hast rejected Jehovah's word, 7poyziol therefore he rejects thee, Gen. xxxiii. 10; after since (פִ) Job iv. 5. b) after an absolute noun, e. g. 1 Kings xii. 17, as to the children of Israel, ix. 21; Dan. viii. $22 . \dagger$

The Vav. conv. (.1) may be rendered that in sentences like the following: Ps. cxliv. 3, what is man that thou takest knowolerge of him! (comp. Ps. viii. 5 where ${ }^{4}$ is used); Is. li. 12, who art thou thou shouldest be afraid? But the idea in the former passage (Ps. cxliv. 3) is this: how insignificant is man? and yet thou dost notice him.
3. As to the relations of time indicated by this Future of consecution [see Note *, p. 108], we may remark that it, in accordance always with the preceding tense, may refer
a) To the present time, namely, in continued descriptions of it, when preceded by a Preterite (in the sense of a Present), Gen: xxxii. 6; Is. ii. 7, 8; Job vii. 9; xiv. 2; or a Future (as a Present), Job xiv. 10; 1 Sam. ii. 29 ; or a Participle, Nah. i. 4 ; 2 Sam. xix. 2; Amos ix. 6.
b) Less frequently to futurity, when preceded by a Preterite (as a Future), Is. v. 15, 16; xxii. 7, 8; Joel ii. 23; Micah ii. 13; or by a proper Future, Is. ix. 10; Joel ii. 18, 19, or by an Imperative, Ps. l. 6 (also when joined to a clause without a verb, e.g. Gen. xlix. 15, or to an absolute noun, e. g. Is. ix. 11, or when it turns to the future, e. g. Is. ii. 9 ; ix. 13).

the third day pened on the third day that -, Gen. xxii. 4; Is. xxxvii. 18 ; vi. 1.

* This connexion is customary when a specification of time is to be made,

 $13,15,18,19$; Judges xvi. 16, 25. See the numerous passages in Gesenius's Thes. Ling. Hebr. p. 372. In a similar way, we found in used of the future in § 124, Rem. 2.
+ On the sentences which begin with the Infinitive or Participle and then proceed with this Future of consecution, see § 129, Rem. 2, and § 131, Rem. 2.
e. g. Is. xlviii. 18, 19; and and (if) I should say (comp. the common Future § 125, 5).

Sect. 127.

## OF THE IMPERATIVE.

1. The Imperative expresses not only command in the strict sense, but also exhortation (Hos. x. 12), entreaty (2 Kings v. 22, sometimes with $\mathbb{N}$, Is. v. 3), wish (Ps. viii. 2, and with ל Gen. xxiii. 13), permission (2 Sam. xviii. 23 ; Is. xlv. 11). It is employed especially in strong assurances (comp. thou shalt have it, which expresses both a command and a promise); and hence in prophetic declarations, as Is. vi. 10, thou shalt make the heart of this people hard for thou wilt make. These may be either a) promises, Ps. cxxviii. 5, thou shalt see (רָּ) the prosperity of Jerusalem ; Is. xxxvii. 30 ; lxv. 18 ; Ps. xxii. 27 ; Gen. xx. 7 ; or b) threatenings* Is. xxiii. 1, howl, ye ships of Tarshish, for ye shall (will) howl; vs. 2, 4; x. 30; xiii. 6 . In all these cases the use of the Imp. approaches very near to that of the Fut., which may therefore precede (Gen. xx. 7 ; xlv. 18) or follow it (Is. xxxiii. 20) in the same signification.

In nearly all its significations, the Imperative is enlivened or strengthened by the addition of the particle $\mathfrak{k}$ age! ( $\$ 103$ ), thus in the sense of command, both the milder (do now this or that), e. g. Gen. xxiv. 2, and the sterner or menacing, e. g. Num. xvi. 26; xx. 10; and in the sense of entreaty, e. g. אָּwn Gen. xii. 13. In the sense of ironical permission we have

2. We may, from the above, explain the peculiar use of two Imperatives joined by and: a) where they are employed in a good sense, the first containing an admonition or exhortation, and the second a promise made on the condition implied in the
 do, and (ye shall) live; Prov. xx. 13, keep thine eyes open (be wakeful, active), and thou shalt have plenty of bread; Ps. xxxvii. 27 ; Prov. vii. 2 ; ix. 6 ; Job xxii. 21 ; Is. xxxvi. 16 ; xlv. 22 ; Hos. x. 12 ; Amos v. 4,$6 ; b$ ) where a threat is expressed, and the first Imp. tauntingly permits an act, while the second denounces the consequences; Is. viii. 9, rich rage on, ye

[^130]people, and ye shall soon be dismayed; Is. xxix. 9. In the second member, the Fut. also may be used; Is. vi. 9 ; viii. 10 ; 1 Sam. xvii. 44.

Rem. 1. How far the Pret. and Fut. may be employed to express command has been shown in $\oint 124,6, c$, and $\oint 125,3, c$.
2. It is incorrect to suppose that the form of the Imp. is used, as some grammarians maintain, for the third person (let him kill). Among the ex-
 among you shall be circumcised. (In verse 12 hize! is used. But hime is the Infinitive, which gives the same sense, $\S 128,4, b$ ). Equally mistaken are the other examples, viz. Ps. xxii. 9 ( 3 i Inf.); Gen. xxxi. 50; Judges ix. 28 ; Is. xlv. 21 (in the last three passages we have actual Imperatives of the 2 d person).

Sect. 128.

## USE OF THE INFINITIVE ABSOLUTE.

The Infinitive absolute is employed, as has been remarked in $\$ 45,1$, when there is occasion to express the action of the verb by itself, neither connected with something following nor dependent on a preceding noun or particle.* The most important cases of its use are :

1. When it is governed by a transitive verb, and consequently stands as an accusative. Is. xlii. 24, הָּ אָּ they would not
 the evil and choose the good; Jer. ix. 4. (Here, however, the Inf. constr. is oftener used, with or without a preposition, always according to the construction of the preceding verb, $£ .139,1,2$. )

In the same construction is Is. xxii. 13, behold! joy and gladness
 sheep, the eating flesh, the drinking wine (where the Infinitives are mere accusatives governed by behold!); v. 5 , I will tell you what I will do to my vineyard, hedge and the tearing down its wall,-q. d. that will I do.
2. When it is in the accusative and used adverbially $\dagger$ (in

[^131]Latin as gerund in do) ; e. g. הֵיטֵ bene faciendo, for bene, הַרַּ multum faciendo for multum. Hence,
3. When it is used for emphasis in connexion with a finite verb.
a) It then stands most commonly before the finite verb, to which it gives, in general, strength or intensity. 1 Sam. xx. 6, , he urgently besought of me; Gen. xliii. 3, he strictly charged us (דָּצָּ הֵצִיד). A very clear example is in Amos ix. 8, I will destroy it from the surface of the earth,
 house of Jacob. Judges i. 28. Its effect is often merely to give a certain prominence to the thought contained in the finite verb,-which in other languages is done chiefly by the expression of the voice or by particles,-as in assurances, questions (such especially as express excitement in view of something strange and improbable), contrasts ; Gen. xliii. 7,
 thou (indeed) rule over us? xxxi. 30, thou art go on e* (חָּרֶT
 xv . 13, we will bind thee, but we will not kill thee; 2 Sam. xxiv. 24 ; 1 Sam. ix. 6 ; Hab. ii. 3.
b) When the Inf. stands after the finite verb, this connexion generally indicates continued or lasting action. Is. vi. 9;
 9, , Two Infinitives absolute may be thus used; 1 Sam. vi. 12 ,
 on lowing as they went; 1 Kings xx. 37. Instead of a second Inf. is sometimes used a finite verb (Josh. vi. 13), or a participle (2 Sam. xvi. 5).
Rem. 1. This usage in regard to the position of the Inf. is certainly the common one, though not without exceptions. It sometimes follows the finite verb which it strengthens, when the idea of repetition or continuance is excluded by the connexion. Is. xxii. 17; Jer. xxii. 10 ; Gen. xxxi. 15; xlvi. 4 ; Dan. x. 11, 13. In Syriac, the Inf. when it expresses intensity

[^132]stands always before, and in Arabic always after, the finite verb.-When a negative is used, it is commonly placed between the two (Ex. v. 23), seldom before them both (Gen. iii. 4).
2. With a finite verb of one of the derived conjugations may be connected not only the Inf. absol. of the same conjugation (Gen. xvii. 13;
 of another of the same signification (Lev. xix. 20 ; 2 Kings iii. 23).
3. In expressing the idea of continuance (letter $b$ ), the verb הָ is frequently employed, with the signification to go on, to continue on, and thus denotes also constant increase, E. g. Gen. xxvi. 13, he became continually greater and greater. 2 Sam. v. 10; Gen. viii. 3,
 participial construction is also frequent here: e. g. 1 Sam. ii. 26, ${ }^{2}$ Tַ
 in goodness; 2 Sam. iii. 1). A similar mode of expression is found in the French : le mal va toujours croissant, la maladie va toujours en augmentant et en empirant, grows worse continually.
4. When it stands in place of the finite verb. We must here aistinguish the two following cases, viz.
a) When it is preceded by a finite verb. This is frequent, especially among the later writers, in the expression of several successive acts or states, where only the first of the verbs employed takes the required form in respect to tense and person, the others being simply put in the Infinitive with the same tense and person implied. (Comp. §119, 3.) So with the Pret. Dan. ix. 5, מָרדְנוּ וְסוֹר we have rebelled_ and (we have) turned away; Gen. xli. 43, he caused him to ride in
 Jer. xiv. 5. With the Fut. Jer. xxxii. 44, they will buy fields for money (Fut.), and write and seal bills of sale, and take witnesses (three Infinitives), Num. xv. 35.
b) It may stand at the beginning of the sentence, without a preceding finite verb. The Infinitive (being the pure abstract idea of the verb) may serve as a short and emphatic expression for any tense and person which the connexion requires. E.g. it stands a) for the Pret. in lively narration and description,
 הֹת to eat, to drink (sc. this they do), for they prepare \&c. Hos. iv. 2. Also $\beta$ ) for the Fut. in its proper sense. 2 Kings iv. 43, g) most frequently for the emphatic $\operatorname{Imp}$. (comp. §46, Note *),
as Deut．v．12．7inư่ to observe（sc．thou art to，ye are to）； so Ex．xx．8，זָּ to remember（oughtest thou）；hence，with the full form，זָּ For the Cohortative Is．xxii．13，רְטְׂׂ to eat and to drink！（sc．let us eat and drink）． 1 Kings xxii． 30 to dis－ guise myself and go（will I do）．
Rem．1．The Inf．for the finite verb is seldom found in connexion with the subject，as in Job xl．2；Ez．i． 14.

2．The examples are also few of the Inf．constr．employed in these cases． Such are Is．Ix．14，where it is used adverbially like the gerund in do；it is
 （弓ய゙），Num．xxiii． 25 （ゴp）．

## Sečt． 129.

## INFINITIVE CONSTRUCT．

1．The Inf．constr．as a verbal substantive is subject to the same relations of case with the noun，and the modes of indicating them（ $\delta 115$ ）are also the same．Thus it is found a）in the nominative as the subject of the sentence，Gen．ii．18，לֹא טוֹב תָיוֹת祘 not good（lit．the being of man in his separation） that man should be alone；b）in the genitive，Gen．xxix．7，צֵ חהֵֵּ tempus colligendi，here too belongs the case where the Infi－ nitive is dependent on a preposition（as being originally a noun），
 I know not（how）to go out and to come in，prop．I know not the going out and coming in．（In this case the Inf．absol．may also be used，$\S 128,1$ ．）

2．For the construction of the Inf．with prepositions，as in the Greek $\dot{\varepsilon} \nu \tau \bar{\omega} \varepsilon^{3} \nu \nu c u$ ，the German［and English］languages gener－ ally employ a finite verb with a conjunction which expresses the
 he meets him，prop．in his meeting with him．Jer．ii．35，צֵy אָמְּך because thou sayest，prop．on account of thy saying．Gen．
 the use of $\begin{array}{r}\text { b before a noun to express distance from，and the }\end{array}$ absence or want of a thing）．The lexicon must be consulted for particular information on the use of the different prepositions．

3．With respect to relations of time，the Infinitive refers also to the past（comp．on the Participle，§131，2），e．g．Gen．ii． 4，
 1) ne is about to ao, intends or purposes to do, and he is intent upon, is eager to do (comp. I am to play), as Gen. xv. 12, אוֹלָ was about to go down. Hence it serves for a periphrasis of the Fut. 2 Chr.

 comp. xvi. 20. 2) It is to do for it must be done (comp. I am to give).
 More commonly without 2 Chr. xix. 2. Also 3) He was able to do (comp. the Latin nom est sol-

2. The Hebrew writers frequently pass from the Infinitive construction (described in Num. 2) to the use of the finite verb, before which the mind must then supply a conjunction answering to the preposition before the Infintive. Thus a Pret. follows in Amos i. 11, because he pursued - and stifed his compassion; Gen. xxvii. 45; a Fut. with Vav. conv. in Gen. xxxix. 18, פָ when I raised $m y$ voice and cried. Is. xxx. 12, xxxviii. 9 ; most commonly a Fut. with only préfixed, as in Is. v. 24, x. 2, xiii. 9, xiv. 25, xxx. 26. (Comp. the participial construction, § 131, Rem. 2.)

## Sect. 130.

## CONNEXION OF THE INFINITIVE CONSTRUCT WITH SUBJECT AND OBJECT.

1. The Infinitive may be construed with the case of its verb; and hence in transitive verbs it takes the accusative of the object,

 צn to kill the righteous; 1 Kings xii. 15 ; xv. 4 ; 2 Kings xxi: 8; Ez. xliv. 30 ; Lev. xxvi. 15, , to do all my




[^133] to seek me, 1 Sam. xxvii. 1 ; v. 10 ; xxviii. $9 ; 1$ Chron. xii. 17.

The same construction takes place with a verbal noun analo-
 (prop. the linowing Jehovah), Is. xi. 9, xxx. 28.
2. The subject of the action is commonly put immediately after the Infinitive, sometimes (where the Inf. is regarded rather as a substantive) in the genitive, but generally in the nominative. E.g. 2 Chron. vii. 3, שֶדֶחת הָאֹ the descending of the fire; Ps.
 xvii. 1, there was no water (prop. for the drinking of the people). The genitive relation of the subject is quite plain after Infinitives of feminine ending, as in Is. xlvii. 9, דבּנְ
 on him; and also when it is expressed by a suffix, like when I call, Ps. iv. 2, 4 (yet also incorrectly בְּשׁוּבֵּu when I re. turn, Ez. xlvii. 7, for (בְּשּׂביבי). On the contrary the genitive is excluded, and the subject to be considered rather in the nomina-


 the ling should lay it to heart; also when the Inf. and the sub-
 Then whether seventy men rule over you ? or one man rules over you? Ps. lxxvi. 10. See farther in No. 3.
3. When both subject and object are connected with the Infinitive, the rule is, that the subject should come immediately after the Inf., and then the object. When the latter is plainly in the accusative, the subject is then put, as in No. 2, sometimes in the genitive, but chiefly in the nominative. The genitive (which

 God overthrew Sodom; Gen. xxxix. 18, בַּדֶרִימִי קוִִֹי as I lifted up my voice; but the nominative is found, e. g. in Is. x. 15, as if the rod could shake them that lift it
 tive). Accordingly the subject is usually to be considered in the nominative, as 1 Kings xiii. 4, כִּשְׁמֹעׁ
as the ling heard the word of the man of God. Gen. xiii. 10, 2 Sam. iii. 11, Ez. xxxvii. 13.-If the finite verb governs a double accusative, the same construction is employed also with the Infi-
 God hath caused thee to lnow all this.

Now and then the order of the words is different, the object being put immediately after the Inf. and the nominative of the subject coming next


 Is. v. 24, xxix. 23; Ps. lvi. 1 .

SECT. 131.

## USE OF THE PARTICIPLE.

1. The only existing form of the Participle is used to express all the tenses, as מֵת dying ('Zech. xi. 9); he who has died, dead; he who is to die (Gen. xx. 3); בֵפּל he who falls, has fallen, will fall; עֶש゙ֶ facturus (Gen. xli. 25 ; Is. v. 5) ; though it most frequently has the signification of the Present. The passive participles therefore stand also for the Latin Participle in -ndus, e.g. גוֹרָ metuendus, terrible, Ps. lxxvi. 8; מְּרָּ laudandus, worthy to be praised, Ps. xviii. 4.
2. The Participle, standing in place of the finite verb as predicate of the sentence, denotes:
a) Most frequently the Present:* Eccles. i. 4, אכָ generation goes, another comes; vs. 7 , Gen. iv. 10. If the subject is a personal promoun, it is either written, in its separate form, in immediate connexion with the participle, as $\boldsymbol{I}$

 if thou savest. In the same mauner it is appended, in negative sentences,


Hence b) the Fuure (conceived of as present, comp. § 124, 4). Is.v.5,
 13; xli. 25.

Also c) the Past, especially when it stands connected with the statement of other past contemporaneous circumstances. Job i. 16, צוֹד
 xlii. $3 \overline{\text { ön }}$; Ex. ii. 6; Judges xiii. 9; 1 Sanı. xvii. 23. But it is also used with

[^134]reference to past time, and even for the perfect Preterite, without any such


With the verb it it serves to express the Imperfect. $\dagger$ Job i. 14
 xvi . 21.

Rem. 1. In all the above three cases, $a, b, c$, is employed before the participle for awakening special attention. E. g. (a) For the Present,
 11. b) For the Future, Gen. vi. 17; Is. iii. 1; vii. 14; xvii. 1. c) For the Past, Gen. xxxvii. 7; xli. 17.
2. Frequently the participle is by a change of construction immediately followed by a finite verb; the pronouns that, who, \&c. (צֻׁu) implied in the participle, must then be mentally supplied before the verb. So Part. and Pret. in Is. xiv. 17, that made (שָׁ) the world as a wilderness, and (who) destroyed (그) the cities thereof. Also Part. and Fut. (Present), so that

 and (who) join field to field; vs. 11, 23; xxxi. 1; 1 Sam. ii. 8; Prov. xix.
 hunted game and brought it ; xxxv. 3; Ps. xviii. 33. (Compare the strictly analogous deviation from the Infinitive construction, $\S 129$, Rem. 2.)

Sect. 132.

## CONSTRUCTION OF THE PARTICIPLE.

When participles are followed by the object of the action which they express, they are construed in two ways: 1) as verbal adjectives having the same government as the verbs to which they belong; e.g. 1 Sam. xviii. 29, enemy (prop. one hating David); 1 Kings ix. 23, הָרִדים בָּנָּם they who rule the people; Ez. ix. 2, לָברּשׁ בַּדּדּ clothed with linen garments: 2) as nouns followed by a genitive ( $\$ 110,2$ ); e. g. Gen. xxii. 12, יְרָא אָלחהחים one that fears (a fearer of) God; Ps.
 הַהַּדּדַּ the one clothed with linen garments.

This latter construction with the genitive is properly confined to active verbs (§ 135). The participle of the verb $x \mathfrak{y}$, to enter in, is also construed thus, as this verb is followed by the accusative (comp. ingredi por-
 there are also examples of the participle, regarded as a noun, being foi-

[^135]lowed by a genitive in cases where the verb to which it belongs is con-

 xxxiii. 11.
2. The difference explained in No. 1 holds also in regard to the suffixes. After the first method we have עע ער he who made me, after the second my maker.

Sect. 133.

## EXPRESSION OF THE OPTATIVE.

We have already seen ( $\$ 125,3, b$ ) that the Future, especially as cohortative with the ending $\pi_{-}$and with the particle $\mathbb{N}_{\tilde{N}}$, is employed to express the Optative. It remains to mention two other forms of circumlocution by which it is expressed, namely,

1. By questions expressive of desire, e. g. 2 Sam. xv. 4, מִּ

 this people were placed in my hand! Ps. lv. 7; Job xxix. 2. In the phrase the proper force of the verb (to give) is often wholly lost, and nothing more is expressed than would that! (utinam!) God grant! It is followed a) by an accusative, as Deut. xxviii. 67, מִי־יִֵּן צֶרֶב would it were evening ! (prop. who will give evening? b) by an Infinitive, as Ex.' xvi. 3. מִי־יִֵן O that we had died! c) by a finite verb (with or without
 heart! Job xxiii. 3.
2. By the particles si, ore si! osi! especially by the latter, Ps. cxxxix. 19. The particle is followed by the Fut. Gen. xvii. 18, by the Part. Ps. lxxxi. 14, seldom by the Imp. Gen. xxiii. 13. When it is followed by the Pret. the desire expressed has reference to past time; as Num. xx. 3, לָ לָּוְנָּ would we had died!

Sect. 134.

## PERSONS OF THE VERB.

1. In the use of the persons of the verb there is sometimes a neglect of the distinctions of gender : especially are the masculine forms (as being the most readily occurring) employed with refer-

 8 ; comp. Cant. ii. 7. (Compare the analogous use of the pronoun, § 119, Rem. 1.)
2. The third person (most commonly in the masc.) is very often employed impersonally, e. g. וַיְהִי and it happened; it it and it (lit. it was strait to him) he was in trouble; 该 and itn he became warm. It is also employed thus in the fem., e. g. 1 Sam. xxx. 6, Ps. 1.3 ; Jer. x. 7.

The Arabic and ethiopic comnonly employ here the masc., and the Syriac the fem. form.
3. The indeterminate third person (where the Germans use man, the French on, and we they, one) is expressed, a) by the 3d pers. singular, e. g. یTָ they (prop. he) called Gen. xi. 9; xvi. $14 ; 1$ Sam. xix. 22 ; xxiv. $11 ; b$ ) by the 3 d pers. plural, as Gen. xli. 14, וַיְריחקָּה and they brought him in haste, for he was brought ; c) by the 2 d pers. singular, e. g. Is. vii. 25 , xiç̃ Ṭָּּ there shall no one go thither; so in the common phrase



Rem. 1. In the first cate (letter $a$ ) the force of w (impersonal, as we use one, men, they) is implied: the full construction occurs in one instance,
 Israel. The poets employ also another construction, viz. the repetition of the verb in the form of the participle as a nominative; e. g. Is. xvi. 10, Kinn whinn the treader shall not tread, for they shall not tread $=$ there shall be no treading; xxviii. 4; Jer. ix. 3; Ez. xxxiii. 4. The last not unfrequent in Arabic.
2. When the pronoun is to be expressed with emphasis, it is written
 anointed, 1 Kings xxi. 7; Ps. cxxxix. 2; also after the verbal form, Judges xv. 12, and this occurs in the later writers without any special emphasis, as ? אֲֵּ Eccles. i. 16, beginning; ii. $11,12,13,15,20$; viii. 15.
3. In the poets and prophets, especially, there is often, in the same construction, a sudden transition from one person to another. Is. i. 29,

[^136] ye delight, where hoth the third and second persons are employed with reference to the same subject, lxi. 7; Deut. xxxii. 15, 17; Mic. ii. 3.-In Job xiii. 28, the thirl person is probably employed deıxtıxw̆s for the first, compare also vi. 21 (according to the reading ib).

## SECT. 135.

## VERBS WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

All transitive verbs govern in general the accusative ( $\$ 116$ ). On this rule we remark:

1. There are many verbs which are construed both without an object (absolutely), and with one (in this latter case the verb in German and English often takes the prefix be). E. g. . weep, and to be-weep; בשָׁ to dwell, and to dwell'in, inhabit; «Tיָㄴ to go forth, and also like egredi in the form egredi urbem ©Gen. xliv. 4).

Here notice further:
Rem. 1. Several verbs of this kind take after them their own substantive, i. e. one from the same ront and with a corresponding signification, as 4 a specification, or as a limitation of the general idea of the verb; e.g. Gen
 Zech. i. 14; 1 Chr. xxix. 9.
2. Verbs which signify to flow, to stream, take in the poets an accusative of that which is represented as poured forth in a stream. -Lam. iii. 48, My mey flows down streams of water. Joel iv. 18 , the hills flow milk. So לָּ to run, to flow, Jer. ix. 17, פָּ to distil, Joel iv. 18, and Tw $_{\boldsymbol{T} \text { to }}$ gush forth, to flow abundantly (hence to bear along as does a



3. It is also to be regarded as a mere poetic usage, when verbs which signify to do , to speak, to cry, and the like, take an accusative of the instrument or member with which the act is performed. Most clear is this, for our view of the subject, in לitỉ לili p in to cry a loud voice (comp. Rem. 1), for to cry with a loud voice, Ezek. xi. 13; to speak a lying tongue (Ps. cix. 2),
 with my (whole) mouth I cry; so, to speak with the mouth, Ps. xvii. 10, with the lips, xii. 3 ; to labour with the hand, Prov. x .4 ; to help with the right hand, with the hand, with the sword, Ps. xvii. 13,14 ; xliv. 3; lx. 7; 1 Sam. xxv. 26, 33; in which cases the accusativus instrumenti is employed. In the same cases instrumenti is also used, e. g. to praise with the mouth Ps. Ixxxix. 2; cix. 30 ; to supplicate with the mouth Job xix. 16; on which account it has been customary to assume, in the above examples, an ellipsis


#### Abstract

of m. But the same use of the accusative is found in Greek; e. g. rৎо $\beta \alpha$ ivєıv $\pi$ ó $\delta \alpha, \pi \alpha i \varepsilon \iota \nu$ 乡̇申os (see Porson and Schâfer ad Eurip. Orest. 1427, 1477, Bernhardy Synt. Gr. Sprach. S. 110); and that the accusative is actually dependent on the verb in these cases, is clear from a comparison with those given under Rems. 1 and 2. In like manner* in German the instrument is sometimes construed as the object of the verb, as in the following examples, which are strictly analogous to those given above: Schlittschuhe laufen; eine herrliche Stimme singen; eine tüchtige Klinge schlagen [so in English, to ring the bell, to sound the timbrel, \&c.].


2. Many verbs govern the accusative in consequence of a peculiar turn given to their signification, when the corresponding verbs in Greek, Latin, and German are construed with other cases. E. g. פָּ to reply to (like ćurifoucii teva, prop. to acquaint one) ; רִר causam alicujus agere (prop. to defend him before the judge); ;ִִּ to bring good news to one, to cheer him; ? to commit adultery with one (prop. to embrace.one adulterously) ; צָּ to become surety for one (to bail him).

Rem. 1. In the same manner are construed even the passive and reflexive conjugations Niph. Hoph. Hithpu., the verb sometimes assuming under these forms a signification which requires the accusative, as phesy, Jer. xxv. 13; 20్త to surround (prop. to place themselves around), Judges xix. 22 ; against, Gen. xxxvii. 18; ; to consider Job xxxvii. 14.
2. In very common forms of expression the accusative after such verbs may be omitted without injury to the sense, as a a covenant, 1 Sam. xx. 16;
3. Whole classes of verbs which govern the accusative are: a) those which signify to clothe and unclothe, as שָׁ to put on a garment, פָׁטֶט to put off a garment, עָ to put on as an orna-
 flocks ; Ps. Ixv. 14 ; cix. 29 ; civ. 2 ; b) those which signify ful-
 21),

[^137]
 Tit. perhaps the fifty righteous will want five, i. e. perhaps there will be lacking five of the fifty Gen. xviii. 28 ; אֶּuׁ (why) should I lose you both together Gen. xxvii. 45; c) most verbs of dwelling, not merely in a place, but also among a people, with one, as among those that breathe out flames Ps. Ivii. 5 ; v. 5 ; cxx. 5 ; d) those which express going or coming to a place (petere locum) ; hence sim, with the accus. to befall one. With this is connected the accus. loci, \& 116, 1 .

Sect. 136.

## VERBS WITH TWO ACCUSATIVES.

Two accusatives are governed by

1. The causative conjugations (Piël and Hiphil) of all verbs which in Kal govern one accusative. E. g. מִלֵּאחתיו רוּחַ חָכְמָּה I have filled him with the spirit of wisdom Ex. xxviii. 3 ; (čnin he clothed him in (caused him to put on) garments of fine cotton Gen. xli. 42. And further, Ps. xviii. 33, בֵּ to bless one with Deut. xv. 14, חִּ to cause one to lack something Ps. viii. 6.
2. A numerous class of verbs which have in Kal a doubly causative signification; such e.g. as, to cover or clothe one with any thing (Ex. xxix. 9; Ps. v. 13, hence also to sow, to plant Is. v. 2; xvii. 10 ; xxx. 23 ; Judges ix. 45 ; to anoint Ps. xlv. 8) ; to fill, to bestow, to deprive (Ez. viii. 17; Gen. xxvii. 37); to do one a favour or an injury (1 Sam. xxiv. 18); to make one
 make it a holy anointing oil* Ex. xxx. 25.

In such combinations as the one last mentioned, we often adopt another construction, viz. and make of it a holy anointing oil, i. e. we treat the first noun as an accusative of material,
 stones an altar, prop. built the stones into an altar ; Lev. xxiv. 5. More notable examples of this construction are those in which


[^138]all its vessels he made of brass; Gen. ii. 7; Ex. xxv. 39; xxxvi. 14 .

There is another use of two accusatives after the same active verb, viz. when the second serves to limit the first, by expressing more definitely the object of the action. This nearly resembles the adverbial use of the accusative (§ 116). E.g. הִקָּ פ' to smite one on the cheek, for to smite his
 life, i. e. to smite him dead, Gen. xxxvii. 21.

Sect. 137.

## VERBS WITH PREPOSITIONS.

The Hebrew language has no verbs compounded with prepositions. Those modifications of the verbal idea, which other languages indicate by composition with prepositions, are expressed in the Hebrew either $a$ ) by appropriate verbal stems, as to re-turn, קָדָם to pre-cede, oc-cur ; or b) by prepositions written after the verb [as in English], e.g. קָרָ to call, with ?
 fall, with to fall upon and also to fall off, with to fall


It belongs to the Lexicon to show the use of the several prepositions with each particular verb. Of classes of words construed with this or that particle we shall most properly treat under $\$ 151,3$, in explaining the construction and use of the prepositions.

Sест. 138.

## CONSTRUCTIO PREGNANS.

Sometimes a verb stands in a construction (especially one implying motion) to which its signification is not strictly adapted; and another verb (the force of which was, in the writer's mind, involved in that of the verb he employed) must be mentally supplied in order to complete the sense. This is called constructio prognans. E. g. הָּמַּ to turn or look in astonishment to one,
 follow Jehovah, i. e. to follow him fully, Num. xiv. 24 ; Ps. xxii.


not release (and let go) to their homes; Ps. lxxxix. 40; Gen. xlii. 28; Is. xli. 1.

Sect. 139.

## CONSTRUCTION OF TWO VERBS TO EXPRESS ONE IDEA.

When one verb serves as the complement of another, the second is construed as follows, viz.

1. It stands in the Inf. both absol. $(\$ 128,1)$ and (more commonly) constr. after the other verb, e. g. Deut. ii. 25, 31, חیֵ הָ
 hate; Ex. xviii. 23, I נִלְאיתִּי שְׁוֹא I am weary to bear. But still more frequently,


 to find, i. e. hast quickly found, \&c.

These two are the usual constructions in prose after verbs signifying to

 or many (חִרְֵּ) , and the like modes of action expressed, for the most part,


 ? is often omitted where it is used in prose, as as to be villing;with the \}, $\}_{1}$, Ex. x. 27, with the mere Inf. Job xxxix. 9; Is. xxx. 9; xlii. $24 . \dagger$
3. It has, like the first, the form of the finite verb; they are then construed,
a) With $\dagger$ before the second verb, which then agrees with the first in tense, gender, and number, both making up but one idea as in Nos. 1 and 2. (Comp. our expression he was pleased and

 and he returned (repeated) and digged, for he digged again;

[^139]xxxvii. 7 ; 2 Kings i. 11, 13 ; Gen. xxv. 1, he added and took a wife, for he took again a wife. Esth. viii. 6, אַיכָכָה אוּכַל וְרָאִיתִּ how should I endure and witness, for how should I endure to witness.-Cant. ii. 3 ; Eccles. iv. 1, 7.

The construction can also begin with the Fut. and proceed in the Pret. with (according to \$ 124,6 ), as in Esther viii. 6; Deut. xxxi. 22, that they may learn (Fut.) and fear (Pret.) for to fear, Hos. ii. 11; Dan. ix. 25. And on the contrary, it may begin in the Pret. and proceed in the Fut. with $\%$, Job xxiii. 3.
b) 'A ${ }^{\prime}$ same tense, gender, and number (as under letter a), but with a closer connexion of the second with the first. Deut. ii. 24, דָּחֵל רָׁ
 go on and have pity, i. e. I will no longer pity; 1 Sam. ii. 3, אַל do not multiply and speak = speak not much;

 3; Hos. v. 10.

This construction is more poetical than that under letter a. Comp. e.g. Mrop with ? following in Gen. xxv. 1 ; xxxviii. 5; but without y in Hos. i. 6 ; Is. lii. 1 ; though it occurs also in common prose, as in Neh. iii. 20 ; Deut. i. 5; Jos. iii. 16; 1 Chron. xiii. 2.
c) Likewise $\dot{c} \sigma v \nu \delta_{s}^{\prime} \tau \omega_{s}^{s}$, but with the second verb in a close subordinate connexion in the Future, depending on the conjunc-
 flatter (prop. I know not to begin, that I should flatter = I cannot
 (that) thou come down, for on the third day come down. Is. xlii. 21.

In Arabic and Syriac this construction is very common,* in Hebrew rare; but it was necessarily used in those cases where the second verb was to be distinguished from the first in person or number. Is. xlvii. 1 , x่


[^140] perhaps I may be able, (that) wee shall smite him, and I shall drive him out.

All three constructions (letters $a, b, c$ ) and also another akin to that under letter $c$, are found alike in some verbs in Syriac. He could go may, for example, be expressed by potuit et ivet (letter $a$ ), potuit ivit (letter b), potuit et iret (not in Hebrew), potuit iret (letter c). See Agrell. Suppl. Synt. Syr. p. 33.
 7דּוֹׂ * when thou shalt cease as a destroyer, e. to be a destroyer $=$ to destroy ; $\dagger 1$ Sam. xvi. 16.

In the same manner is construed also the verbal adjective, 1 Sam. iii. 2,
 20, רַּחָּ

Rem. 1. In very many of the above examples the first verb only served, in effect, to qualify in some manner the second, and hence we translate it by an adverb. Compare farther Gen. xxxi. 27, לָּ when where fore hast thou secretly fled; xxxvii. 7, your sheaves stood around and bowed,
 asking, i. e. hast made a hard demand. The verb which qualifies the other may also occupy the second place, but never without special cause; e. g. Is. liii. 11, รּבּּׁ Ixvi. 11, that ye may suck and be satisfied (by that act); xxvi. 11.-Jer. iv. 5, "ק phe means, call ye (and that) with full voice $=$ call aloud.
2. Of another construction are those verbs which take after them (in place of an accusative) a sentence or clause depending on or or that (§ $\$ 52,1$ ); such e. g. as to see (Gen. i. 4, 10), to know (Gen. xxii. 12), to believe, to remember, to forget, to say, to think, to happen. On the omission of the conjunction before such clauses, see $\S 152,4, c$.

Sect. 140.

## CONSTRUCTION OF PASSIVE VERBS.

1. When a causative conjugation (Piël, Hiphil) has two accusatives ( $\$ 136$ ), its passive retains only one of them (the second, more remote object), taking the other as a nominative, or including it in itself. Ps. Ixxx. 11, פֶט the mountains
 בּגָּ

[^141] thou wast made to see).

Several striking phenomema in the construction of the Passive are readily explained: if we regard it as an impersonal Active (dicitur $=$ they say), just as, on the contrary, the impersonal Active often supplies the place of the Passive (see § 134, Note). We may thus explain those cases, in which
a) It takes the object of the action in the accusative. Gen. xxvii. 42 ,


 him Isaac; xl. 20,
 Abram. Lev. xvi. 27 ; Jos. vii. 15.
b) It does not agree (as often happens) in gender and number with the noun, even when preceded by it (comp. § 144); because the noun is, in this case, regarded not as the subject but as the object of the verb passive.

 xiv. 3; Gen. xxxv. 26 ; Hos. x. 6.*
2. The efficient cause, after a passive verb, most frequently takes ל, and is therefore in the dative (as in Greek), as בָּרוּ לְ blessed of God ( $\tau \oplus \vartheta \vartheta \omega)$, Gen. xiv. 19, Prov. xiv. 20, Neh. vi. 1, 7. More rare, but equally certain, is the same use of pִ (prop. from, by which origin, source, in general, is often denoted) Ps. xxxvii. 23, Gen. ix. 11, Job xxiv. 1; ; מְִּנִ a parte, Gen. vi. 13; 3 by, Num. xxxvi. 2, Is. xlv. 17. Sometimes this relation is expressed without a preposition with accusat. instrumenti (comp. § 135, 1, Rem. 3), as Is. i. 20, , דָ by the sword shall ye be devoured, comp. Ps. xvii. 13.

Rem. Many neuter verbs are sometimes used as passive, in consequence of a peculiar application of their meaning. E. g. 7 군 to go dovon,-spoken of a forest, to be felled; ; ֶָָה for to be brought up (on the altar), Lev. ii. 12, to be entered (in an account) 1 Chron. xxvii. 24 ; $\underset{\text { Tv }}{\boldsymbol{v}}$ to be brought out of, Deut. xiv. 22.

[^142]
## CHAPTER IV.

## CONNEXION OF THE SUBJECT WITH THE PREDICATE.

Sect. 141.

## MANNER OF EXPRESSING THE COPULA.

The union of the substantive or pronoun, which forms the subject of the sentence, with another substantive or adjective as its predicate, is most commonly expressed by simply writing them


 grood; Is. xxxi. 2, 2 , struction, a personal pronoun of the third person, which refers to the predicate, frequently serves to make prominent the union of the subject and predicate (see $\$ 119,2$ ).

More seldom the copula is expressed by the substantive verb

 (which include the idea of the substantive verb) when the subject is the pronoun and the predicate is a participle (see $\$ 131,2, a)$.

On the gender and number of the copula see $\S 144$.
Rem. Instead of the adjective the Hebrew often employs the abstract substantive as a predicate ( $\$ 104,1$, Rem. 2) ; especially when there is no adjective of the required signification (§ 104, 1), e. g. קִירחוֹתָּ his walls (are) $w o o d=o f$ wood, wooden. Here the sense is the same as if the substantive, which stands as subject of the sentence, were repeated, in the constr. st., before the predicate (
 of stones? Similar examples are: Cant. i. 15, פָּנִ thy eyes (are) doves'eyes; Ps. xlv. 7,
薄 a righteons sceptre is the sceptre of thy dominion. So also especially with of comparison, as Ps. xviii. 34, nithink
 ments of one treading the wine-press; xxix. 4.

[^143]Sect. 142.

## ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE; CASE ABSOLUTE.

1. The most natural arrangement of words in a simple sentence in calm discourse is properly this, viz. subject, copula, predicate ; or, when the predicate consists of the verb with its object, subject, verb, object. Adverbial designations (for example, of time or place) may stand either before or after the verb; a negative always immediately before it.*

But the Hebrew can, at pleasure, render either of these members prominent by giving it the first place in the sentence; thus: a) The verb: Prov. xxviii. 1, there flee, when there is no pursuer, the wicked. Gen. xlii. 30. This is its common position when there is implied in it an indeterminate subject (the impersonal
 lights, שִּנָּ (comp.il vient des hommes); and also wherever the sentence or clause is connected with a preceding one by (of course wherever the Future with $\boldsymbol{\square}$ Is employed),


b) The adjective ; and this, when it is the predicate, is commonly placed first as the most important member of the sentence. Gen. iv. 13,
c) The object of the verb, which is then imnediately followed by the verb, as Prov. xiii. 5, lying speech hates the righteous man; Is. xviii. 5, a ripening grape becomes the blossom, viii. 14 ; Gen. xlvii. 21. Very rare is the arrangement as in 2 Kings v. 13, some great thing had the prophet commanded thee. Ex. xviii. 23.
d) The adverbial expression, which is then immediately followed
 v. 22.

Another arrangement, viz. subject, object, verb, which is common in Aramæan (Dan. ii. 6, 7, 8, 10), is seldom found in Hebrew, and only in

[^144] nius's Comment. on Is. xlii. 24.

On the absence of inflexion in the predicate when put first, see $\S 144$.
2. But the greatest prominence is given to any substantive in the sentence (whether it is the genitive, or accusative of the object, or employed by way of qualification of any kind) by permitting it to stand, absolutely, at the beginning of the sentence, and then representing it, in its proper place, by a pronoun (compare c'est moi, qu'on a accusë). E. g. the genitive, Ps. xviii. 31, God - perfect is his way, for God's way is perfect ; xi. 4 ; civ. 17 ;-the accusative, Ps. lxxiv. 17, winter and summer - thou hast made them, for thou hast made winter
 he removed them ; xxi. 13, comp. Jer. vi. 19.* The suffix may also be omitted, Ps. ix. 7, and the connexion indicated by ? as sign of the apodosis). Ps. xviii. 41 (comp. 2 Sam. xxii. 41). Job
 there is no searching (to them). Gen. iii. 5.

The use of the participle in this manner is peculiar and resembles the Latin ablative absolute, Prov. xxiii. 24, ריוֹלד he who begets a wise son (i. e. when one begets, \&c.) then he may rejoice. 1 Sam. ii. 13, when any one brought an offering, then came the priest's servant; ix. 11 .

## Sect. 143.

## RELATION OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE IN RESPECT TO GENDER AND NUMBER.

The predicate (verb, adjective, substantive with copula) conforms, regularly, to the subject in gender and number. From this rule, common to all languages, there are many deviations, partly occasioned by regard to the sense rather than the grammatical form of words (constructio ad sensum), partly by the position of the predicate before the other members of the sentence.

In respect to the first cause we remark:

1. Collective nouns, e. g. צָּ בּם Bamily, and nouns used as collective, as שִּ men (see § 106, 1), are usually

[^145]
 when the collective is itself fem. but represents individuals which are of the masc. gender; e.g. 2 Sam. xv. 23, מָּלֹהָאָרֶץ בּוֹצִּם the whole land (i. e. its inhabitants) wept ;* 1 Kings x. 24; Gen. xlviii. 6 ; 1 Sam. ii. 33 ; xvii. 46 ; and vice versâ, Job i. 14,
 of the predicate with the singular form in such cases, see Gen. xxxv. 11 ; Is. ii. 4 (comp. Mic. iv. 3).

Often the construction begins with the singular (especially when the verb is placed first $\$ 144, a$ ), and then, when the collective is introduced, proceeds with the plural. Ex. xxxiii. 4, Mand the people heard . . . and mourned; i. 20 .
2. On the other hand, plural nouns with a singular signification ( $\& 106,2$ ) are construed with the singular, especially the pluralis excellentia. Gen. i. 1, 3. $\dagger$ Ex. xxi. 29, owner shall be put to death. So feminine forms with a masculine signification are construed with the masculine, as in Eccles. xii.

3. Plurals which designate beasts or things (but not persons), whether they are masc. or fem. readily take the construction with the fem. sing. $\ddagger$ (comp. the feminine form with the collective mean-
 field pine for -. Job xiv. 19, חִּשְׁׂׂ its floods wash
 Ps. xxxvii. 31 ; Job xii. 7. The same principle applies to pronouns in connexion with their antecedents, Job xxxix. 15; Is. xxxv. 7; 2 Kings iii. 3.

[^146]4. Moreover, those plurals also which designate persons are construed with the singular, when, instead of the whole sum of individuals spoken of, the attention is directed to each one of



5. Dual substantives have their predicates in the plural, since verbs, adjectives, and pronouns have no dual form. Gen. xxix.


 10, עֵיבֵי ment my eyes shall see. Jer. xiv. 7; Is. i. 16; Job x. 8 ; xx. 10 ; xxvii. 4 ; Ps. xxxviii. 11. Rarely the principle stated in No. 3 of this section is extended also to the dual; e. g. Mic. iv. 11.

## Sect. 144.

## SUBJECT AND PREDICATE IN RESPECT TO GENDER AND NUMBER.

The other cause of deviation from the general rule is the position of the predicate at the beginning of the sentence. The subject, to which it would regularly conform, not being yet expressed, it often takes its simplest and readiest form, viz. the masc. sing., even when the subject, which comes after, is feminine or plural: the predicate in this case is not subject to inflexion. E.g.
a) The verb: Is. xlvii. 11, , דָּ דָּ evil; Mic. ii. 6, reproaches do not depart. Ps. lvii. 2; Deut. xxxii. 35 ; Esther ix. 23, וְקִּל הַּחְהוּדִים and the
 battle. 1 Sam. xxv. 27. Often the verb may here be regarded as impersonal, as in il vient des hommes, il a paru denx volumes ( $\$ 142,1, a$ ). More seldom before the plur. fem. we find (at least) the masc. plur. Judges xxi. 21, when the daughters of Shiloh come forth.

 German also neglects, in this case, the inflexion of the adjective : gerecht (sind) deine Gerichte.)
 shepherds (are) thy servants. Also
d) The copula, when it precedes the subject.* Is. xviii. 5 , בֶּׁר
 xxvii. 39 ; xxxi. 8.

But if the construction is continued after the introduction of the subject, the verb must conform to it in its gender and num-
 ix. 6 .

Rem. 1. In general, the language is at times sparing in the use especially of the feminine forms (comp. § 110,1 , Rem. 2), and, when a feminine substantive has more than one predicate, contents itself with giving to the nearest one the appropriate feminine form. This is well illustrated by the

 is moved . . . . it stirreth up the shades to thee. Examples of the masc. form in remote predicates, Gen. xxxii. 9 ; xlix. 15 ; Levit. ii. 1; v. $1 ;$ xx. 6 ;
 xx. 26; after ${ }^{2}$ อִ, vi. 20.

On the same principle pronouns which refer to plural nouns, take the form of the singular when they stand remote from their antecedents. Job xxxviii. 32; Deut. xxi. 10.
2. The cases in which the predicate follows the subject without conforming to it in gender and number, are mostly those in which a verb passive is to be regarded as impersonal and in construction with the accusative ( $\$ 140,1$, Rem.) ; or the predicate is a participle used as a substan-


 ness, there became (with a special emphasis on the noun,-the verb standing impersonally).

## Sect. 145.

## CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOUND SUBJECTS.

1. When the subject is composed of a nominative and genitive, the verb sometimes conforms in gender and number to the genitive instead of the governing noun,-viz. when the word in the genitive expresses the principal idea. E.g. Job xxxii. 7, בi隹 the multitude of years (i. e. many years) should

[^147] there was the battle-front against him, i. e. the battle was turned against him. Is. vi. 4; Job xxxviii. 21.

With the substantive be the whole and the numerals, this construction is almost universal; e. g. Gen. v. 5, Adam were ; Ex. xv. 20 ; Gen. viii. 10.
2. When several subjects are connected by and, their common predicate usually takes the plural form, especially when it follows them; Gen. xviii. 11, אַבְרָהָם וְשָּרָה זְקַנִים Abraham and Sarah (were) old. When it precedes, it often conforms in gender and number to the first (as being the nearest) subject. Gen. vii. 7,位 there went in Noah and his sons ; Ex. xv. 1 ; Num. xii. 1, 1, xxxiii. 7; xliv. 14. Rarely the preference for the masc. appears;
 rejoice the heart. If the construction is continued, it is always with the plural form, e. g. Gen. xxi. 32 ; xxiv. 61 ; xxxi. 14 ; xxxiii. 7.

## CHAPTER V.

## USE OF THE PARTICLES.

Sect. 146.
Of the particles, as connected with the system of forms and inflexions ( $\$ 97-103$ ), we have already treated in their relation to the other parts of speech. We are now to consider the signification and use of these words, which are so necessary to the nice perception of the sense, and hold so important a place in the philosophical treatment of the language. We shall present, in a general view, their most important peculiarities, leaving the more complete representation, as well as the necessary proofs, to the lexicon.

## Sect. 147.

## OF THE ADVERBS.

The most important adverbs, classed according to their signification, are:

1. Adverbs of place: ロ ֶָ there; $\boldsymbol{H}$, * הַנְּ hither, the latter also here (from the Chald. inis), thither, farther on (prop. to a distance), hence מִּק this side of thee, and

 and backwards, the west (prop. on the side towards the sea), שָּבִביב around,


To many of these adverbs $\dagger$ is prefixed, or the accusative ending $7-$ appended, indicating respectively the relations from and towards. E. g.



Both these additions, however, express also the relation of rest in a place, as the right). The $n-$ is in both cases accusative ending ( $\$ 88,2$ ), and properly denotes hanging off from an object, and hence being upon the side of it, like a dextra et sinistra, a latere, a tergo, and in French dessous, dessus, dedans, dehors. $\dagger$
2. Adverbs of time: these are in part the same with those which have been mentioned as adverbs of place, and which, by an easy transition are
 and contr.

Exclusively such are; פָּ wi the time, hence, now, at this time (also without the pure designation of time, like $\nu \tilde{v} v, \nu i v y$ ), and presently, soon;



 -
 both past and future time, long since; 7ity (to repeat) again, repeutedly, commonly yet, with a nega-


[^148] stantly.
3. Adverbs for other modal ideas, as, a) of quality: is (see above) and

 ing little) almost, אֹׂא so, so then (Job ix. 24), hence often used intensively
 with other adverbs) wholly, just, as whe wholly (just) so long, Job xxvii. 3.
 followed by the genitive (prop. sufficiency), enough, as what is enough
 also with suffixes, as לְבִַּּ I alone; logether.

 nay rather, immo Gen. xvii. 19; 1 Kings i. 43 ; אֵּ perhaps.*

The expression of asseveration may easily pass over into that of opposition (comp. verum, vero) and of limitation; and hence some of the abovementioned affirmative particles are partly adversative and restrictive, as $\overline{7}$ only, is $\bar{\square}$ on the contrary (the LXX ov $\mu \dot{\eta} v \dot{\alpha} \lambda \lambda(\dot{x})$, thus used almost exclusively in the Pentateuch and Job. Restrictive also is רָ (used before adjectives like $7 \underline{\text { WK }}$ ) merely, i. e. only.
d) Of cause: and (more poetical, and expressive of accession) ax adeo, yea more, even, -both which, however, often take the character of conjunctions.
4. Adverbs of negation: on these see $\S 149$.
5. Interrogative adverbs include all the former classes: thus the question may relate to place, as where? the first with suff. wher whe wer wher (is) he? so wֶּ whence? (from when whither? ; to time, as when? when whil when?

 ( $\S 97,3$ ) wherefore? see § 150.

Most of these interrogative particles are formed by prefixing אֵּ, אֵ, which in itself signifies where (comp. Germ. wovon? wohin?); but by usage becomes also a mere sign of interrogation before particles of place, time, \&c.

In this manner, and by the application of the ending $\pi-$, of the prefix



[^149]whence (relative); שָׁ there, מָּם thence,


## Sectr. 148.

## CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

1. Adverbs not only serve, in general, to qualify a clause or sentence by expressing circumstances of time, pia \&c., but also to qualify single words, as adjectives, e. g. "משׁ good, and even substantives (like $\dot{\eta} \chi \vartheta$ 额 $\dot{\eta} \mu \dot{s} \rho()$. With the latter they stand either $a$ ) in apposition (wut commonly after

 จ. 9 ; or $b$ ) in the genitive, innocent blood 1 Kings ii. 31, where the adverb is treated substantively, as in sponte sua.

The adverbs also appear in the nature of the substantive, when, as in the


2. The repetition of'an adverb sometimes denotes intensity, and sometimes continual accession; e. g. קוֹאד בְּ exceedingly Num. xiv. 7, also more and more Gen. vii. 19, and lower Deut. xxviii. 43, מְשַּט מְֵַּט by little and little (peu à peu) Ex. xxiii. 30.

On the use of verbs with the force of adverbs, see § 139, Rem. 1 .
Sect. 149.

## OF WORDS WHICH EXPRESS NEGATION.

1. The most important adverbs of negation are : not, $火=\mu \dot{n}$ that not,



We subjoin a more particular view of the use of these words:
$\aleph^{3}$, like $o \vec{v}$, ovx, is used principally for the objective, unconditional negation, and hence with the Future expresses prohibition ( $\$ 125,3, c$ ). -In connexion with 3. , when the latter is not followed by the article and therefore means any one, any thing, it expresses the Lat. nullus, none (comp. Fr. ne-personne). Gen. iii. 1, 1 ,
 Ex. x. 15; xx. 4; 2 Chron. xxxii. 15; Prov. xii. 21; xxx. 30. (The nega-
tive is here closely connected with the verb，and and there does not happen
 むרָּ made definite，where it means all，the whole．Num．xxiii． 13 ， all of him（his whole）thou shalt not see（but only a part）．On the use of xiל in interrogative sentences，see $\$ 150$ ， 1.

On the position of $\mathfrak{\alpha}$ in the clause，see $\S 142,1$ ，and Note．
ל $\mathbf{x}$ is properly $\mu \dot{\eta}$ ，Lat．$n e$ ，for the subjective and dependent negation，＊ with reference to the views and feelings of the speaker，－hence exclusively with the future．The phrase $\mathfrak{N} \boldsymbol{\sim}$ shall not come，or for may he not come，see above § $125,3, c$ ，and $\S 126,2$.

Sometimes it stands absolutely，without the verb（like $\mu \dot{\eta}$ for $\mu \dot{\eta}$ тoṽтo
 so，my daughters．On the interrogative use of it，see $\S 150,1$ ．
$\dagger^{7} \times$ is the negative of ${ }^{4}$ there is，and includes the verb to be in all its tenses；e．g．Gen．xxxvii．29， Num．xiv．42，یֵּ Jehovah is not among you．The same formulas are expressed positively with 4 and negatively with as Gen．xxxi．29，דיָ it is in my power（prop．it is in the power of my hand；Neh．v．5， 5 ，it is not in our power．It follows，moreover， $\alpha$ ）that the personal pronouns，when they are the subject of the sentence， are appended to אֵֵ as suffixes；as as an am not，I was not，I shall not be，，אֵּ אֵינֶ，\＆c．$\beta$ ）When the predicate is a verb，it almost univer－ sally takes the form of a participle，the verb of existence being inplied in
 not give；viii． 17 ：Deut．i．32．₹）As to be near or at hand，so ws used in the contrary sense to be not present or at hand ；אֵיבֶּ he was not present＝was no more，Gen．v． 24.

From wn is formed by abbreviation the negative syllable in compounds as a prefix：it is found in Job xxii．30，צִי־־ָּקָּ not guilless． In AEthiopic it is the most common form of negation，and is there used even as a prefix to the verbs．On the formation of the interrogative from TK，see p． 273.
 non－existence，stem－word $\boldsymbol{H}$（ָָּ）is most frequently employed before the Inf． when it is to be expressed negatively with a preposition；as 3 ，to eat，
 not，Jer．xxiii． 14.

谓（removing，a clearing away）is the same as ne，that not，lest，espe－ cially after the mention of an action by which an apprehended evil is to be prevented or shunned（Gen．xi． 4 ；xix．15）；or after verbs signifying to fear，to beware（like $\delta \varepsilon i \delta \omega \mu \dot{\eta}$ ，vereor ne）xxxi． 24,31 ；－also at the begin－ ning of the sentence，especially in the expression of apprehension or fear， as Gen．iii．22，，וָּ
2．Two negatives in the same sentence，instead of destroying

[^150]each other as in Latin，［and English］make the negation stronger，like oùx oúdzís，oủx oúdacu⿳亠口s． 1 Kings x．21，צֵין נilver was not at all regarded for any－ thing（in the parallel passage， 2 Chron．ix．20，ל ל ל is omitted）． Ex．xiv．11．－Zeph．ii．2， come，（so in Germ．ehe er nicht kommt，and in Lat．priusquam ．．．non）．Is．v．9，מֵیֵּ יוֹשֵׁב prop．without no inhabitant．

3．When one negative sentence follows another，especially in the poetic parallelism，the negation is often expressed only in the first，while its influence extends also to the second． 1 Sam．ii．3， multiply not words of pride，－let（not）that which is arrogant come forth from your mouth．Ps．ix． 19 ；Job iii．10；xxviii．17； xxx．20．（Compare the same usage in respect to prepositions， \＄ 151,4 ）．

## Sect． 150.

## OF INTERROGATIVE WORDS AND SENTENCES．

1．Interrogative sentences are sonetimes，though rarely，dis－ tinguished as such merely by the tone of voice in which they are

 This is somewhat more frequent when the sentence is connected with the previous one by 9 ；Jon．iv．11，， $I$ not spare？Jub ii． 10 ；x．8，9，13；Judges xi．23；xiv． 16 ； and when it is introduced by the particles（Zech．viii．6）and BN（Job xiv．3）．But negative sentences still more readily take， in utterance，the interrogative character ；e．g．with $\dot{\mathcal{b}}$ ，when an
 4 iii． 36,38 ；with in expectation of a negative answer， 1 Sam． xxvii．10，ye have not then made an excursion in these days？＊

Even the few interrogative particles originally expressed either affirmation or negation，and only acquired by degrees their interrogative power．$\dagger$

[^151]Respecting $\overbrace{-}$ and its original demonstrative signification (being related to the article), see $\$ 98,4$.

Probably where? sprung from a negation; full form (hence מיֵֵn whence?), prop. not there, is not there,-uttered interrogatively, is not there? =where is? ू is he not there? for where is he? Job

 German woo (where), and Eng. who); but this is not its original use. On the abbreviation of
2. Most commonly the simple question begins with He interrogative $\underset{\rightarrow-}{ }$,-the disjunctive question with $\underset{\sim}{\text { followed }}$ in the second clause by (אֻם ( xxii. 15, הְ הְגֵּד shall we go . . . . or shall we forbear? The indirect form of inquiry differs only in having Ex more frequently in the simple question, and in the first member of the disjunctive question.

More particularly:
The 7 is strictly a sign of the simple and pure question, when the inquirer is uncertain what answer may or should be given. Job ii. 3, hast thou considered ( a negative answer ( $n u m$ ?), which may be expressed in the tone itself;
 if a man die, הֲחֶ will he live again? Such a question may have pre-
 shalt thou build a house for me? (in the parallel passage, 1 Chron. xvii. 4, ' לֹא negative form of the question has the effect of an affirmation; אֹ่ nonne? is it not so? for بִּה behold! 2 Kings xv. 21; xx. 20; comp. 2 Chron. xxvii. 7; xxxii. 32.* On the other hand, the question may be so uttered as to show that the speaker expects affirmation and assent; when it corresponds, in effect, with the negative form of the question in English: compare the use of $\bar{\eta} \gamma \dot{x} \rho$ and $\overline{\dot{\eta}} \gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ ov for is not? and of the Lat. - ne for nonne? $\dagger$ Job xx .4 , તָּ question is very seldom introduced by E , and then always in connexion with something already implied which gives a disjunctive sense, like our or perhaps (German oder etroa), Lat. an, as in Is. xxix. 16; 1 Kings i. 27; Job vi. 12.
$n u m$ ( $=n u n c$ ), an (probably, perhaps); originally negative and then interrogative, $-0 \dot{u} x, \mu \dot{\eta},-n e$, in German nicht wahr ? (not true 3) nicht ? (not ?).

* In a similar manner wֶה what ? [why ?] spoken with indignation expresses prohibition under the form of reproach or expostulation. Cant. viii. 4, מה־מָּצִירו why do ye rouse? Job xvi. 6; xxxi. 1. This negative force of $\underset{\sim}{\text { in }}$ is very frequent in the Arabic.
$\dagger$ See Heindorf ad Plat. Phædr. 266. Heusinger ad Cic. de Off. iii. 17.

The disjunctive question (utrum-an?) is usually expressed under the form $\mathrm{Ex}-\mathrm{H}$, also Ex tion with ix or before the second clause, Job xvi. 3; Eccles. ii. 19.

The form of the indirect question is, in general, the same. After verbs of inquiring, doubting, examining, the simple question takes $\%$ (whether), Gen. viii. 8; Ex. xvi. 4, and Ex, Cant. vii. 13; 2 Kings i. 2; the disjunctive question (whether-or) Ex-n, Gen. xxvii. 21, and also $\underset{\sim}{-2}$, Num. xiii. 18.-The formula also used affirmatively like the Lat. nescio an, Esther iv. 14.

For interrogative adverbs of place, time, \&c. see $\S 147,5$.
The words (§ (§ 120,2 ) and quite, then, serve to give animation
 אֵ what aileth thee now? quid tibi tandem est? Is. xxii. 1 ; אֵּ where now? Job xvii. 15.
3. The affirmative answer is given, as in Latin, by repeating the predicate of the interrogative sentence; Gen. xxvii. 24; xxix. 6 ; Judges xiii. 11 ; the negative answer is xib no, Gen. xix. 2.

## Sect. 151.

## OF THE PREPOSITIONS.

1. The simple* prepositions, like the adverbs, originally denote for the m.ost part physical relations, viz. those of space, and are then used tropically of immaterial relations, as those of time, cause, \&c. The prepositions of place originally denote either rest in a place, or motion from or to a place; but in each class there are some (several in the first, few in the second), which take also the signification of the other.
a) The must important prepositions of place are:
a) Of rest in a place, $\mathfrak{\exists}$ in, by, $a t$,
 (apud), $3 y$, near, behind, 5 between,
$\beta$ ) Of motion, from, $\}$ and 3 to, tovoards, unto, as far as, 一 and also (from the former class) $\div$ to (usque ad), $3 \pm$ upon, towards.
b) Very many of the above-mentioned prepositions express also relations of time, as $\frac{\exists}{z}$ in, vithin, 7 ,

[^152]c) Of those which denote other relatinns we may mention, בְ ב,
 out, besides, 放 (prop. as a reward) for, because.
2. The composition of these particles exhibits a great degree of dexterity, and accuracy of discrimination, in expressing those relations which are denoted by prepositions. Thus those of motion are set before others denoting rest, so as to express not only a change of relation, but also the local one which was existing previously to the change, or which follows as the result of it, as in French de chez, d'auprès.* So
 מַּלַל away from upon or above, מֵּ מֵּת de chez quelqu'un, מִּחַחּ away from under.
 without, i. e. on the outside of, שאֶל מחזּ ל forth without, Num. v. 3.

Thus also compound prepositions, which have adopted an adverbial signification, take after them (more seldom מִן) and again become prepositions. E.g. מַעַל (adv.) above, מַַּׁ above,
 (prep.) without, לְבַּ separately, aside, ְְבַד מִּ aside from, besides.

This accessory preposition may also precede the adverbial form; e.g.


3. We will now present a few prepositions,-such as occur most frequently and have the greatest variety of meaning,-with their principal significations, in order to explain their construction with verbs ( $\$ 137$ ) and the most important idioms connected with them. $\ddagger$

[^153].nn a) $\frac{3}{1}$, which has the greatest variety of significations of all the prepositions, denotes, 1) prop. rest in a place ( $\varepsilon \nu$ ), hence in with reference to time,
 company, or number of individuals, among, e. g. ■! ina -with reference to bounds or limits, within, as घּ within the gates,-of high objects, upon, as anoubl upon horses, Is. lxvi. 20 ; rarely it has all these significations "after verbs of motion $=\varepsilon_{i c}$ (like ponere in loco). The Hebrew says $\alpha$ ) to drink in a cup (for, to drink what is in it), Gen. xliv. 5 (so in A rabic and
 in ossibus bibere in Florus, French boire dans une tasse), $\beta$ ) in the manner, in the model or rule, for after the manner or model (comp. \&v тш̈ vó $\mu \omega$, hunc in modum), as ' counsel of any one, , דְ in (after) our image, after our likeness Gen. i. 26 ; vs. 27 and v. 1,3 , Adam begat $a$ son בִּ Somewhat different is the signification in Gen. xxi. 12, in Isaac (קחְָּ ? after Isaac thy seed shall call themselves. In this signification of the particle is to be understood $\gamma$ ) the essentice or pleonasticum of the grammarians, which every where means, as, tanquam (Fr. en). Ex. vi. 3, I appeared to Abraham, \&c. . will come predicate-adjective after the verb to be ( $=$ conduct or behave as), Eccles. vii. 14, in the rlay of joy בiׁב
 is one [without a rival]: (In Arabic this idiom is frequent; see Thes. Ling. Heb. p. 174).
 the river, Ezek. x. 15; ; in in the eyes of $=$ before the eyes of one ( (6) ${ }^{\prime} \varphi \vartheta \vartheta \alpha \mu \mu 0 \tilde{\imath}$, II. 1, 587). In this sense it frequently indicates motion (Lat. ad), to, unto: it differs, however, both from $\mathrm{h}_{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{t}$, towards, and unto, usque $a d$, since it denotes. that the object towards which the motion tends is actually arrived at (which is not determined by the use of $3 \underset{\text { w }}{ }$ ), and yet does not fix attention specially upon this point, as is done by פַ. Gen. xi. 4, a
 the relation of verbs of motion (and others analogous to them) to their

 Verbs having the signification of the last two, often include the idea of the pleasure or pain with which one sees or hears any thing. Gen. xxi. 16, I could not witness the death of the child! Hence, in a tropical sense, in respect to, on account of, as $\boldsymbol{3}$ בֶ in something.

With the idea of vicinity, nearness, that of accompaniment, and of help, instrumentality (with), readily connects itself. Gen. xxxii. 11, with my staff ( rushed upon troops. Verbs of coming and going, with $\frac{\bar{z}}{2}$ (to come, or go, with) express the idea of bringing; e. g. Judg. xv. 1, Samson visited his wife with a kid, brought her a kid. Deut. xxiii. 5.
b) $3 y$, which is most nearly related to $\frac{3}{z}$, signifies upon ( $k \pi i$ ) and over ( $\mathfrak{v} \pi \dot{\varrho} \varrho)$; very frequently of motion (down) upon or over a thing. In the sense of (resting) upon, (coming) upon, it is used after verbs signifying to be heavy, i. e. burdensome, affictive (prop. to lie heavily upon), Is. i. 14 ; Job vii. 20,to set or appoint over (commission), as צַ תָּ (prop. to look tenderly upon). With the primary idea is connected that of accession (conceived as a laying upon) and of conformity, after, according 20 (with reference to the rule or pattern, upon which a thing is laid to be measured or modelled), and of cause (ob quam), on account of [prop. upon something as ground or motive], although. In the signification over, it is
 place a covering, a shield, over.); and also with those of kindred meaning, as $\}$ yֻ a to contend for one (prop. in order to protect him), Judg. ix. 17. It is used for at, by, chiefly in cases where there is an actual elevation of one of the related objects above the other, conceived as an impending over; e. g. also where this is not the case, as 7 , expresses the relation of motion to the object at which it terminates, $-t$, towards, so that in the later Hebrew style and in poetry: it is often used for

c) (\$ 100) indicates motion, removal, away from any thing. . Its fundamental signification is separation from a whole, derivation, descent. As constr. st. of the noun part, it properly means part of, hence off, from, used at first with reference to the part which is taken from the whole, as to give, to take part of $=$ from. Most clear is this fundamental signification
 elders of lsrael, صִדֶ. some of the blood (Fr. du sang). It has the same signification when (apparently pleonastic) it is connected with the words one, none, in the often misapprehended idioun of the Hebrew and Arabic non ab uno, i. e. not any one, not the least, prop. not even a part, a piece, the least portion, of one. Lev. iv. 2; Deut. xv. 7; Ez. xviii. 10.

In its most common use, with reference to motion away from, it forins the opposite of $3 \underset{\text { w }}{ }$, and is employed not inerely after verbs which express actual motion, as to depart (from), to flee (from), but also those of kindred signification, as to be afraid, to hide, to beware: comp. in Gr. and Lat. $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \alpha \lambda \dot{\pi} \pi \tau \omega \dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{0}$, custodire $a b$. In its tropical use with reference to time, it may mean either from (a time) on, in which case the reckoning is to be made

 beginning of thy days onvard; or it may mean next from, i. e. immediately



For the use of it to denote rest on the side of an object, where the idea is that of near distance, or being just off from (the prope abesse ab, pendere ex aliqua re), see $\S 147,1$. For its use in the expression of comparison, see § $117,1$.
d) $3 \times,{ }^{4} \mathrm{~K}_{2}$ (prop. regions; directions, hence lowoards), denotes motion,
and also merely direction towards (with reference bath to material objects and the operations of the mind), whether one reaches the place towards which the motion is directed, and even passes into it (in the former case equivalent to


It is certainly an unfrequent and improper use of this particle (though sustained by unquestionable examples), when it is employed to denote rest in a place at which one has arrived. Jer. xli. 12, they found him an by the great waters in Gribeon. It is so used especially in the formula日
 Soph. Ajax. 80. The German use of $z u$ in $z u$ Hause, zu Leipzig, is quite analogous.
e) ? (an abbreviation of 3 , but more commonly used in the tropical significations), to, towards, denoting motion or merely direction, either of physical objects or of the mind : hence employed as a sign of the dative, and also of the genitive of possession (§ 113), and then with the signification with respect to, on account of, in behalf of. Such a dativus commodi is used pleonastically (especially in the language of commen intercourse and in the later style) after verbs of motion, as to go, to flee, especially in the Imperative, e.g. $7_{3}^{3} \overbrace{2} \overbrace{2}$ go, get thee away, but also after other verbs, as שְדֵהּ be thou like Cant. ii. 17. It is a solecism of the later style (common in Syriac), when active verbs are construed with $?_{1}$ instead of the accusative, as $\}$

Very often also, especially in poetry, it denotes rest in a place,-hence
 at evening. On the use of it after passive and other verbs to denote the efficient cause or author, see $\$ 140,2$.
f) (as an adverb, about, nearly), as a prep. as, like to; for denoting similarity it is doubled as-so, and also so-as in Gen. xliv. 18, in later authors $y_{i}$; according to, after, from the idea of conformity to a model or rule; as a designation of time, about (circa). A pleonastic $\underset{\text { I }}{ }$ or Kaph veritatis, as the grammarians called it, is nowhere found with certainty. In


4. A preposition (like the negatives, $\$ 149,3$ ) may be omitted when the relation which it expresses is repeated, as e. g. in the second member of the poetic parallelism. E. g. ב̣, Is. xlviii. 14, he will do his pleasure on Babylon (בְּבָּל), and his arm on the Chaldeans (כַּשְׂדּים for also ל ל, Job xxxiv. 10, Is. xxviii. 6 ; מִ, Is. xxx. 1; Gen. xlix. 25 ; חַּ, Is. lxi. 7.

The numerous ellipses which have been assumed of the various prepopositions, are in the highest degree uncritical. Even the cases in which it
has been customary to supply $\underset{i}{3}$, especially afier $\underset{\sim}{\geq}$, are all to be regarded as examples of the accusative used adverbially or governed by an active verb: in a few cases the noun is actually in the nominative.

## Sect. 152. OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

1. The Hebrew language, considered with reference to the number of its conjunctions, frequently consisting of several words combined, and its ability to form still others from most of the
 no small degree of cultivation and copiousness compared with its usual simplicity. But writers often neglect the means which it furnishes for accurately expressing the relations of sentences and members of a sentence, contenting themselves with less perfect modes of connexion :* hence the various uses of certain favourite conjunctions (particularly ! ?, wּ M, which, though they may not actually have in Hebrew as great a variety of signification, must yet be as variously expressed in translations into our western languages, where we are not permitted (see No. 3) to retain the loose and indefinite connexions sometimes made by these particles

Of the most extensıve application is $\%$, (§ 102, 2): $\dagger$
a) Properly and usually copulative (and), connecting single words as well as whole sentences. When three or more words stand in connexion, it is used either before every one after the first (2 Kings xxiii. 5) or before the the last only (Gen. xiii. 2) ; rarely after the first only (Ps. xlv. 9). In certain phrases it is commonly omitted, as yesterday (and) the day before= heretofore, Ex. v. 8. The tone of animated description or narration may also occasion the omission of it (constructio asyndeta) ; as Judg. v. 27, at her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay. Job xx. 19; Cant. ii. 11; v. 6; Is. xxvi. 17.

As connecting words it is often explicative (like isque, et quidem). 1 Sam. xxviii. 3, หiํา xiii. 20 ; Amos iii. 11 ; iv. 10 ; even when the second idea is subordinate to the first, and would properly be expressed as the genitive after it (the ${ }^{8} y$
 thy pain and thy conception, i. e. the pains of thy pregnancy.

[^154]b) Adversative (and yet, while yet) ; Judg. xvi. 15, how canst thou say l love thee Gen. xv. 2; xviii. 13.
c) Causal (for, because); Ps. v. 12, let them ever shout for joy, because (when, since) thou dost defend them. Is. xliii. 12, ye are my witnesses

d) Inferential (then, so then, therefore); Ez. xv:i:i. 32, I delight not in the death of him that dieth-: וְקָׁu therefore turn ye. In this sense it may stand even at the beginning of a sentence, when it implies an inference of some kind from circumstances already mentioned; 2 Kings iv. 41, and
 2 Sam. xxiv. 3.
e) Final (in order that, so that); in this sense chiefly with the cohortative or jussive ( $\$ 126$ ).

Of scarcely less extensive application are the two relative conjunctions
 running almost parallel with each other in their significations, except that 4 occurs as a conjunction far more frequently and in a great variety of senses, while that

Both are prefixed, like quod, to a whole clause, standing in place of an accusative, and governed by the preceding active verb as its object.
 we have heard (id quod exsiccavit) that Jehovah hath
 the following uses of 4 ; $; a$ ) it is employed before words directly quoted,
 prop. (at the time) that, (at the time) when, sometimes passing over to the conditional power of ex̣ [Eng. when $=i f$, differing only in the form of representation], Job xxxviii. 5, consp. iv. 18 (seldum שֶׁug Lev. iv. 22 ; Deut. xi. 6),-but often with an accurate discrimination between the two,
 propterea quod, also for $=\gamma \dot{\alpha} \varrho$; repeated ( because-and because: Job xxxviii. 20), when more than one cause for the same thing is assigned; d) adversative (in which sense only is used) either $\alpha$ ) after a negative, but,-prop. but it is because, e. g. thou shalt not take a wife for my son from the daughters of the Canaanites-but thou shalt go to my native land, for thou shalt go, \&c. the former being prohibited because the latter is to be done; or $\beta$ ) where negation is only implied, e. g. after a question which involves denial ( $\$ 150,1,2$ ), when it may
 have I done to thee? . . . . for surely I brought thee up, \&c. Job xxxi. 18. See on below in No. 2, i.
2. We will now arrange the remaining conjunctions according to their significations, exhibiting together, however, the different uses of each wherever it may be first presented. We must here
confine ourselves to a brief general notice, leaving the more com plete view, with references and proofs, to the Lexicon.*
a) Copulatives: besides $\%$, 4, the properly adverbial forms also, and MK intensive, there is added, wholly, even, once combined and even also, Lev. xxvi. 44. The first is often used with plural forms emphatically, to include all, e. g. שix both the two, merely gives emphasis to the following word; Gen. xxix. 30, and he loved 3 Rach el (not, also Rachel) more than Leah; 1 Sam. xxiv. 12 , - ַָ is prop. add that, hence not to mention, nedum, -according to the connexion, much more, much less.
b) Disjunctive: ix or (etym. free will, choice, hence prop. vel, but also aut exclusive, 2 Kings ii. 16). Sometimes it stands elliptically for or (be it) that, or (it must be) that, when it may be rendered unless that, e. g. Is. xxvii. 5 ;-hence the transition to the conditional sense, if, but if,
 which has been contested without reason (comp. on אֹ, § 147, 3, Note). Repeated, ix - ix, sive - sive, it is the same as


 as, and
 merely (Gen. xviii. 5; xix. 8; 2 Sam. xviii. 20), and (Job xxxiv. 27), for prop. for the circumestances that = for this cause that, and emphatically
 on the account, that), and $\mathfrak{\square}$ ִּ (therefore that), eo quod, because, ֵקֶּ (prop. as a reward that) that.
e) Final: causal), that $=$ in order that (see above), perhaps $3_{3}, 1 \mathrm{Kings}$ vi. 19. With a negative force:
f) Conditional: principally and (for which rarely 良), if. The first (which is also a particle of interrogation, $£ 150,2$ ) is purely conditional, leaving it uncertain whether what is expressed by the verb is actually so, is actually done, or not (rather the former),-as, if I do-have done-shall do; on the contrary, $\ddagger \ddagger$ expressly implies that it is not so, is not done (if I should do-had done), at least that it is very uncertain and even improbable. Hence may properly stand where would express the thought

## * See especially Gesenius's Heb. Lexicon.

$\dagger$ See on these groups of particles Gesenius's Thesaurus II. p. 682.
 becomes, when uttered interrogatively, first an optative particle ( $\S 133,2$ ), as M לֶחֶ nonne vivat? for would that he were alive, then a conditional particle, if he were alive (which is however not the case).
more accurately (Ps. 1. 12; cxxxix. 8; Hos. ix. 12), but \% cannot be used for ex̣. Especially in solemn asseveration, expressed under the form of


g) Concessive: © א, with the Pret., even if ( $=$ though) I am, Job ix. 15,
 Job xvi. 17; © even when, although.
h) Comparative:
 Is. Iv. 9; Ps. xiviii. 6, and to in the apodosis, Obad. 15. Exact conformity is expressed by
i) Adversative: (see on the adverbs, $\S 147,3$ ). Decidedly belong here, ? prop. that if, for if, most frequently but if, in the sense of ". . explained underNo.1, e, $d$, but united with Ex to form a connexion with the verb. Ps. i. 1, happy the man who walks not (if he walks not) in the counsel of the ungodly . . . . 2, but if (פִּ) his delight is in . . . . Then simply but, Ps. i. 4; Gen. xxxii. 29, but if, but when, Gen. xxxii. 27, and merely but = except (after a negative), xxxix. 9; xxviii. 17.
k) On the interrogative particles see $\& 150$, and
$l$ ) The oplative particles above under letter $f$.
3. A certain brevity and incompleteness* of expression (see No. 1) appears in this among other things, viz. that instead of the compound conjunction, by which the relation is fully expressed, may be used one or the other of those composing it. Thus instead of the full form רַ
 Is. lxi. 11, and שֶׁux Ex. xiv. 13 ; 1 Kings viii. 24.
4. This brevity of expression is sometimes carried so far, that the conjunction, which is required to show the relation of one sentence or part of a sentence to another, is omitted altogether. This occurs,
a) In conditional clauses: Gen. xxxiii. 13, drire they them hard, then they will die,-for, if they drive them hard, they will die. Job vii. 20, (if) I have sinned, what have I done unto thee? Gen. xlii. 38.

[^155]b) Where comparison is expressed : Ps. xiv. 4, 4 , who devour my people (as) they would eat bread, prop. (as) those who eat bread. Job xxiv. 19, drought and heat bear off the snow-water, (so) Sheol (those who) sin. Jer. xvii. 11.
c) In members which are usually dependent on the relative conjunctions. Gen. xii. 13, say commonly are men. Is. xlviii. 8, for I knew, thou art utterly faithless. Ps. xvii. 3, I have purposed, my mouth shall not $\sin$. In all these cases, the second member stands properly in the accusative ; comp. § 139, 4, Rem. 2.

## Sect. 153.

OF THE INTERJECTIONS.
The interjections which correspond to our ah! oh! alas! woe! expressing denunciation as well as lamentation (אֲוֹי , אֲñ, 4ia), are connected with the object of the threatening or lamentation either by the prepositions
 Is. i. 4 ; ; alas, my brother! 1 Kings xiii. 30.

On the construction of $\pi$ ? with the suffixes, see $\$ 98,5$.







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## PARADIGMS.

In the Paradigms of the verbs, those forms which serve as models for others (normal forms), and which therefore the beginner should especially notice, are marked with an asterisk. Thus in the regular verb the 3 fem . model for vowel only; where a toneless or unaccented syllable beginning with a consonant is added to the root per and is the model for ${ }^{2}$ ? beginning with a consonant and having the tone.


[^156]
## SONAL PRONOUN.*


etical, and those in parenthesis are of rare occurrence.


VERB． 58 42－ 53.

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|  | ＊ | ＊＊ | ＊ |
| M |  | Nup | אֶ |
| יִקִּלְ | － | When |  |
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|  | ＊＊ |  | ＊${ }^{\text {a }}$ |



WITH SUFFIXES. \% 56-60.
3 Sing.f. 1 Plur. 2 Plur. m. 2 Plur.f. 3 Plur. m. 3 Plur.f.

קְקָּלָּתן














| E．Verb AYin Guttural．$\ddagger 63$. |  |  |  |  |
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| บทֹ่ | － |  | \％${ }_{\text {\％}}$＊ | － |
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| שָׁדחּחפ | ？ |  | －${ }^{\text {apax }}$ | （1） |



Guttural. $\quad \$ 64$.



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| Pret．3．$m$ ．3．$f$.2．$m$.2．$f$.1．$c$. | ไֶּ | ＊ |  | 为吅＊＊ |
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|  |  |  | ¢ | ภน์ |
|  | regular |  | 4 | ＂ |
| Plur．3．c． |  |  |  |  |
| 2．m． |  |  | － |  |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  |  |  |
| 1．c． |  | ？ |  | 隹 |
| Inf． | ת | רַּ |  |  |
| Inf．absol． | ָֹּׂשׁ | חִּפָּבשׁ |  |  |
| ImP．$\quad m$ ． | ข่르＊ | רִּ3x | ข่มี＊＊＊ |  |
| $f$. | － | － | － | wanting |
| Plur．m． |  | 田 |  | ， |
| $f$. | － | － | － |  |
| Fut．3．m． |  |  | บ゙らい＊＊ | ข่E®＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． | ขอ |  |  | บ่ํํ |
| 2．m． |  |  |  | ข |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  | －10． |  |
| 1．c． | א\％ | regular |  | ข |
| Plur．3．m． | ¢ |  | － | บที่ |
| 3．$f$ ． | תִּ |  | － | － |
| 2．m． | תִּ |  |  |  |
| 2．$f$ ． | ת\％ |  | 傦 | － |
| 1．c． | 戉 |  | 翟 | \％ |
| Fut．apoc．（Jussive） |  | ข่¢¢＊＊ |  |  |
| Part．act． <br> pass． |  | ช゙呚＊ |  | ＊ |


|  | ERB | ALEPH | ）．$\$ 67$ | 1 |
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| Pret. 3. m. |  | $52$ <br> Gutiural， | radigm D |  |
| Inf． <br> Inr．absol． |  | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \operatorname{bnt} \\ & 20 \mathrm{t} 5 \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| IMP．$\quad m$ ． $\text { Plu\%. } \begin{gathered} f \\ \\ \\ f \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Yont } \\ & \text { sTc. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 2yN5 } \\ & \text { 玉тс. } \end{aligned}$ | wanting |
| Fut．3．$m$ ． $\begin{aligned} & \text { 3. } f . \\ & \text { 2. } m . \end{aligned}$ <br> 2．$f$ ． <br> 1．$c$ ． $\begin{array}{r} \text { Plur. 3. } m . \\ \text { 3. } f . \\ \text { 2. } m . \\ \text { 2. } f \\ \text { 1. } c . \end{array}$ |  |  |  | $32 N 4$ <br> 玉TC． |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Part．act． pass． | $\begin{aligned} & 25 i \\ & 2.5 x \end{aligned}$ | $5 \operatorname{son}$ |  |  |



|  | 368. |  |  |
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| （＊）． 771. |  | N．Verb AYin Yodh（\％）．， 772. |  |
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| 3．$f$ ． | － |  | ？ |
| 2．$m$ ． |  | ＊ | －${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |
| 2．$f$ ． |  | ִִּבְצֵּ | 9？ |
| 1．c． | פָּ |  | P？ |
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| 1．c． |  |  | 9 |
| Inf． | 10\％ | 䍖 | 2n |
| Inf．absol． |  | ִִבְּצ＇ | 2ַּ |
| Imp．m． | ＊ | 菏 | 2 |
| ． | 9ִ\％ | T0 |  |
| Plur．m． | 9\％3\％ |  | － |
| $f$. |  | －${ }^{\text {and }}$ | － |
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| 1．c． | אֶקְ\％ | N\％ | N（1） |
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| 2．$m$ ． |  | \％ | 年 |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  |  |
| 1．c． |  |  |  |
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| Part．act． pass． |  <br>  | ¢ | 仿 |

ALEPH（※゙る）．§73．

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|  | P．Verb Lamedh |  |  |
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|  | kal． | niphal． | PIEL． |
| Pret．3．m． | － | ＊ | T－3 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| 3．$f$ ． | －ก็ื่ |  | － |
| 2．m． | ถัֹ | กั＊${ }^{\text {²0 }}$ |  |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  |  |
| 1．c． | －กٌ |  | － |
| Plur．3．c． | \％${ }^{\text {T＊}}$ | ¢\％ִּלִ |  |
| 2．m． |  |  | ロ－ |
| 2．$f$ ． |  |  | － |
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| Inf． | ถที่＊＊ | ภที่อี＊＊＊ | กゼ3อ＊ |
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| $f$. | － | －${ }_{\text {－}}^{\text {－}}$ | ージき＊＊ |
| Fut．3．m． | － |  | ก試＊ |
| 3．$f$ ． |  | － | ก |
| 2．m． |  | ¢ָּ | กํา |
| 2．$f$ ． | ＊＊ | 4＊ | － |
| 1．c． | צֶבֶּדֶ | 隹 |  |
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| 2．f． | － | － |  |
| 1．.. |  |  | － |
| $\overline{\text { Fut．apoc．}}$ | לมํา＊ | 3迎？＊ | 3xa＊ |
| Fut．with Suff． |  |  | － |
| Part．act． pass． |  | － |  |

HE（ $\stackrel{\pi}{6}$ ）．$\$ 74$ ．

| pual． | hiphil． | норнaL． | hithpael． |
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| －${ }^{\text {a }}$＊ |  |  | ＊ |
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| 7 ${ }^{\text {2 }}$ | דִגְלִ） |  | דיחִּ |
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| \％ | ダํา |  | ， |
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|  | － |  |  |
| ＊ | ＊ | ＊מָּלְלה＊ | ＊ |

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## EXERCISES

## IN

HEBREW GRAMMAR。

[^157]



## EXERCISES IN HEBREW GRAMMAR

## SECTION I.

EXERCISES ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF THE CONSONANTS AND VOWELS, AND ON THE MANNER OF WRITING THEM IN CONNEXION.

$$
[885,6,7,8 .]
$$

The student should carefully observe the manner of writing and pronouncing the vowels in connexion with the consonants, as exhibited in the following examples, that he may learn to distinguish to what consonant each vowel in a word belongs.
** Every syllable begins with a consonant; see § 26,1 , where the only exception is given. The accent is commonly on the final syllable $(\S 15,2)$ : when it is on the penult, this is indicated as in the .Grammar (§ 15, Rem. 3).
 $m \bar{o}, ~ \sum ~ m \bar{u}, ~ ? ~ l \bar{e}, ~ \grave{~}$


 - $p \bar{o}$, 凡 $t \bar{e}$, ती $t \bar{o}$, 凡 $t \bar{i}$.


הַּ hădh,


 gìv, ו!̣ vâv.
c) Vowels in connexion with their homogeneous



Here the sound of 1 and ' is not heard separately from that of the preceding vowel, - i. e. they are pronounced as vowels: see $\S 7$ 7, 2. The feeble consonant power of $\boldsymbol{N}$ and $\boldsymbol{i}$ is also often lost after a vowel ( $\S 23$, 1,5), like that of the English $h$ in ah, oh. E. g. 슥 $b \hat{a}$, К $b \overline{0}, \mathbb{N}$ so $\mathcal{N}(\S 23$, Rem. 3) after 1 and ' when pronounced as



Hholem is written over the consonant to which it belongs (and after which it is pronounced), unless or $\mathbb{N}$ is the following letter,
 When it belongs to $b$ it is commonly written over the following letter; e. g. $\dot{b}$, lott; but often as $\mathrm{ph}^{2}$.-Shureq is never written except in the bosom of its homogeneous vowel-letter (i).
 tēl,
 תרּ măr, לذ: yâ-khōl, םלָ, hâ-lŭm,
 $q \hat{a}-t \bar{o} n$. - Examples containing feeble letters sounded
 משְ

[^158]$m \bar{o}-\bar{l} \bar{l}, \quad$ בֵּ



For explanation of the following examples, see Rems.

 vōm, 7 ivil vâ-shōdh.

The student should adopt some pronunciation for those consonants whose original sound is unknown, or for which the English language has no representative. The frequent repetition of the following exercises will aid him in expressing the sounds which he may adopt for these letters.
$\pi$ (commonly expressed by strongly rolling the pal-
 חק,

 77, 7 .


y. Probably the nearest expression of the original sound of this letter, and the one which best exhibits its guttural character, is that given by Gesenius (§ 6, 2). But even the "wholly false Jewish pronunciation $n g$ " is preferable to the entire omission of the letter in reading. דָּעָ (





ふ.. A slight appulse of the breath before or after the vowel, according as it stands at the beginning or end of
a syllable: in the latter case it is buc seldom heard separately from the vowel, and then resembles $h$ in eh! uttered softly. E. g. $\quad$. $m \vec{e}-\mathbb{N} \bar{e} n, ~ b \hat{a}-\mathbb{N} a ̆ s h$,


ה. The full English h. Its sound before a vowe: requires no illustration: when uttered after a vowel it has the fullest sound of $h$ in hah! eh! E. g. הLה!*
 râm.

In regard to 7 it may be added, that the proper pronunciation of $r$ after a vowel (formed in the throat and the back part of the mouth, without the vibration of the tongue) better expresses the guttural sound of the He brew 7 than the rolling French or Irish $r$.

Write the following words in Hebrew characters : bădh, lēdh, 'âbh, † 'ōbh, hēl, hīl, hǐv, 'lēn, lūn, lōn, bōn, băn, bân, "©in, † "ēts, pīn, pōts, dōth, lădh, sōn, sŭn, shēn, shădh, shībh, shēm, sīn, săv, sǐv, tēn, tōm, tūbh, shōth, shǐth, lōv, rōs, sōr, lōsh, lǐsh, lăsh, tsê-nâ, tsī-th $\hat{a}$, $q \bar{o}-t \bar{e} l, q \hat{a}-t \bar{u} l$, ts ${ }^{\prime}-y i ̆ t h, ~ d \hat{a}-b h \hat{a} r, ~ ' \hat{a}-b h a ̆ d h, ~ " \bar{o}-s h \hat{a}, ~ b \bar{\imath}-n \hat{a}$, tsūl, nē-săph, tâ-vōn, nê'-shc̆ph, sū-sī, sō-tăy, sâ-'ăn, shōdh, shō-'̄es, mo-" $\bar{e} d h, ~ p \hat{a}-n u ̆ y, ~ p \hat{a}-n \hat{e}-k h \hat{a}, n \bar{o}-s h \bar{e} n$, $b \bar{o}-r a ̆ t s, b \bar{o}-r \hat{a}-t s o ̄ n, q \bar{o}-b h \bar{e} d h, q \bar{o}-v a ̆ z, t s \bar{o}-\bar{e} m, m \hat{a}-t h \bar{o}$, $t s \bar{o}-v \bar{\imath}, \bar{u}-g h a ̆ z, ~ h \bar{e}-v o ̄ t s, l \bar{o}-r e \bar{s} h, s \bar{o}-t \bar{e} r, y \bar{e}-s h \bar{i}, y \bar{o}-s h e \bar{c} b h$, qū̀-mū, pê'-lĕgh, pấ-lăgh, pâ-lchăr, pī-thōn, pīq, pī-lkhōl,

 ghĕl, rê'-văhh, rō-hhăbh, râ-zăhh, râ-khăs, râ-khīl, râ-khäsh.
** The student may find it most convenient to omit $\kappa$ and $\nu$ in pronuncration, and to make no distinction between $\lambda$ and $\lrcorner, כ$ and $\ni$, according to the practice of many teachers. It is desirable, however, to preserve as far as possible those peculiarities in pronuncia-

[^159]tion, which serve to explain the laws of the language. It is impor tant, also, that the language should be addressed to the ear, as well as to the eye. It may be added, that the trouble of acquiring the pronunciation of such a language as the Hebrew, is sufficiently rewarded by the knowledge of the powers of the human organs of speech, and the command of his own, which the student thus obtains.

## SECTION II.

## EXERCISES IN SYLLABICATION.

$$
[\S \S 9-14 . \S 15,1,2 . \S 16 . \S 26 .]
$$

As the use of Sheva ( $\$ 10$ ), and the distinction between long and short Qamets (\$9), depend on the theory of the syllable exhibited in $\$ 26$, it is found most convenient to present the subjects of these three sections in connexion. The other sections referred to above are to be read with care, in order that the occasional allusions to them may be understood.

## Use of Sheva (§ 10).

Sheva (emptiness, vacancy,) merely denotes the absence of a vowel, and is written, with the single exception given in § 10,3 , under every vowelless consonant.* Of course it has properly no vocal power. When, however, two consonants precede a vowel, the organs of speech spontaneously supply a slight vowel-sound under the first. Thus in such forms as ktol, gmul, gthar, the $k$ and $g$ are uttered with a very short and slight vowel-sound, $k^{*} t o l$, $g^{r} m o l, g^{r} t h a r$. Sheva, therefore, is vocal (indicating a kind of half-vowel) only when it stands under the first of two consonants before a rowel. Accordingly it is silent in, תָּ|?
 ותת||ֵל $v^{\circ} t h \bar{e}-l \bar{e} d h$.

[^160]There is but one case in which the learner finds any difficulty, viz. when simple Sheva occurs between two
 ter under which it stands might be the final consonant of a closed syllable (silent Sheva), or the initial consonant of the next following syllable (vocal Sheva). Thus

 ぶ $\hat{c}-b h^{e} r \hat{a}$.

Whether Sheva, in this case, is silent or vocal depends on the nature of the syllable as taught in § 26. A vowel sound is naturally prolonged unless interrupted by a consonant. Hence an open syllable has properly a long vowel $(\S 26,3)$. - A syllable closed by a consonant, though its vowel is naturally short, may have a long vowel when the tone causes the voice to dwell upon it. $\dagger$ Accordingly, as a general rule,

Simple Sheva is silent under a final letter, and under a letter which is preceded by a short vowel or an accented long vowel: in all other cases it is vocal. E. g.*

 mŭq-târ, תIַרְע, עčr-văth.


 $y \hat{a}-d h a ̂ y-t a ̂$.



[^161]



The composite Shevas are always vocal ( $\$ 10,2 \dagger$ ), and of course always stand at the beginning of a syllable. E. g.
 tsĭp-poprim, , in

Exercises on the use of the composite Shevas will be furnished by the paradigms of nouns, of verbs with gutturals, \&c.
 , מִבְּני,



Rem. 1. When Daghesh $f$. is omitted at the end of a syllable ( $\$ 20,3, b, \&$ Rem.) the simple sheva which commences the next following one remains vocal. There is here a sharpening of the preceding short vowel (comp. $\$ 22,1 . \$ 26,2, e$, Rem.), the consonant in which Daghesh is omitted being pronounced rapidly between the two syllables, as if it belonged to both. E. g. הַקְבֵּ (for





The instances of this omission of Dagh. $f$. will be pointed out until the student learns to distinguish them by his knowledge of forms.

Rem. 2. The exceptions mentioned in $\$ 26,3, a-e$, exhibit no essential deviation from the general principle. Thus in the forms given under $a, \cdots ? ?$ $y$ Irr $^{c} b h$, mêl ${ }^{l} k h$, the first vowel of which, in rapid pronunciation,

[^162]strikes the ear nearly as if uttered in a closed syllable. In all the remaining cases, the voice (under the influence of the tone, or of the half-accent Methegh $=$ bridle, i. e. restraint, delay, §16, 2) dwells upon the vowel, so that, - theugh not strictly long, - it may properly stand in an open syllable.

Rem. 3. It should be added, that a short vowel may also stand in an open syllable followed by the same vowel, viz. when the latter, in the course of inflexion, takes the place of the corresponding composite Sheva; see $\S 28,1,3$. In this case, also, it has the sup-
 $y a ̆-y a ̆ m-d h \bar{u}$ (for

## Qamets-Hhatuph (§ 9).

Qamets-Hhatuph $=\mathbf{o}$, like the other short vowels stands properly in a closed syllable: but it may also, like them, stand in an open syllable followed by the corresponding composite Sheva ( $\because$ ), or by another short o (see Rem. 3 above) which, in the course of inflexion, has taken the place of the composite Sheva. In both cases it has, like the other short vowels, the support of
保



In regard to the means of distinguishing short from long Qamets, it is sufficient to observe here, that the figure is invariably short o only in a closed unaccented syllable; and that whether it stands in such a syllable is determined by the punctuation only in the following cases, viz. a) when it stands next before the tone-syllable, and is followed by simple Sheva without a Methegh intervening; for in this case long Qamets is invariably followed by Methegh (§ 16, 2, $a^{*}$ ); e. g. אָכְלָה,

[^163]Nơkh-lâ, (but with Methegh Nאֲּ, Nâ-khlâ): b) when it stands in an unaccented syllable, and is followed by Dagh. f.; e. g. חָ חָנֵּ (for syllable without the tone; e. g. वृ륜, văy-yâ-qŏm.

The student should therefore confine his attention to these cases, until he can distinguish the quantity of Qamets by his knowledge of forms. It is generally long: and the occasional examples in which it is short will be pointed out in the Exercises and Reading Lessons. It would be better to make no reference to Methegh, as a means of ascertaining the quantity of this sign, except in the case marked $a$.

## SECTION III.

## DOUBLING OF CONSONANTS. ASPIRATION OF THE MUTES.

$$
\text { [ } 8 \$ 20,21 .]
$$

## Distinction of Daghesh forte and Daghesh lene.

It will be perceived, by comparing the two sections, that Daghesh forte is alvays preceded immediately by a vowel, which is never the case with Daghesh lene.
 חקַּ! yĭq-qăhh, dăy, מִּלִּ mĭb-bēn.

Dagh. l.: :





Use of Daghesh lene (§ 21).
The learner will observe, that the hard sound of the letters $\beth,\lfloor, 7, \beth, \beth, \Omega$, is the original one, (i. e. they are properly Mutes), and that it is the intermingling of a preceding vowel-sound which produces the softer or
aspirated pronunciation. By comparing Nos. 1 and 2 of $\S 21$, he will perceive that the statements which they contain may be briefly expressed thus: these letlers take Daghesh lene except when preceded by a vowel or a vocal Sheva.

A vowel in which one of the fecble letters quiesces (the vowelsound alone being heard in this case) of course aspirates the following mute in the same manner as a pure vowel.

Often, as in the following examples, the aspirated letter begins a word, and the vowel-sound which produces the aspiration closes the preceding one, - the two words being uttered in so close connexion that the ef-
 Gen. 31: 1, words of the sons of 一; :ְְהי כִבְבָּךָ, Gen. 30:34, be it according to thy word; [for the omission

 and all the flock bare -: הוֹאִּאוּ כָל-אִישׁ, Gen. 45: 1, put forth every man. - Sometimes, however, the two words are so separated in pronunciation (the former standing at the end of a clause,* as indicated by one of the distinctive accents, § 21,1 . § 15,3 ) that the closing vowel-sound of the first does not affect the pronuncia-

 (ribid. 7), Gen. 38: 27, it happened, at the time -;
 ("Class IV, 19), Gen. 44: 2, my cup, the silver cup; (1, Class IV 20), Gen. 48: 7, and as for me, when I came.
 ,


[^164]Daghesh f. Euphonic (§ 20, 2) will be pointed out as it occurs, in the Reading Lessons, and the student will soon learn to distinguish it.

## SECTION IV.

## QUIESCENCE OF THE FEEBLE LETTERS.

$$
[\rho 923,24 .]
$$

The vowel-letters 1 and ${ }^{\prime},{ }^{*}$ when they are said to quiesce, are properly sounded as vowels (§7, 2. § 8, 3). Of a different nature is the quiescence of N and $\mathfrak{N}$ : the former represents no vowel sound, the latter only that of long $a$, for which, however, it is very rarely written ( $\$ 7,2 . \$ 8,3$, and $\S 23,4$, Rem. 1). These two letters are lost to the ear, when preceded by a vowel, merely in consequence of the feebleness of their sound. $\dagger$ Hence (with the single exception of $\mathfrak{N}$ used for long $a$, they are not treated as homogeneous with the vowel in which they quiesce ( $\oint 8,3$ ), or as rendering it immutable ( $\$ 25,2$ ). - But the two cases may properly be treated together, as, in both, the effect on the pronunciation is the same (i. e. the sound of the consonant is not heard separately from that of the vowel), and instances of quiescence are distinguished by the same rule.
For convenient reference, we present at one view the feeble letters in connexion with the vowels in which they quiesce.

[^165] ๗ֵ


it in $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Hholem, } \\ \text { Qamets, } \\ \text { Seghol, } \\ \text { Tseri, }\end{array}\right.$

1 in $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Hholem, }\end{array}\right.$ Shureq,
iל $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { iל } \\ \text { lū }\end{array}\right\} \S 8,3$.


The following rule will enable the pupil to determine by the punctuation when these letters quiesce, and when they retain their power as consonants.

The feeble letters are to be regarded as quiescent when they have no vowel or Sheva, and also, at the end of a word, when they are preceded by vowels in which they are accustomed to quiesce.

This rule is founded on the principle $(\S 10,1,3)$ that every consonant must have either a vowel or a Sheva: when the feeble letter stands at the end of a word, where Sheva is not written, the character of the preceding vowel must determine whether it is to be sounded or not.

He Mappiq ( $\boldsymbol{n}, \S$ 14, 1) of course retains its power as a consonant, whatever vowel may precede.

Examples of quiescence: בטַ". yĩ-tăbh, ת'רְ berīth,






Compare the punctuation of these letters in the following examples, in which they retain their power as conso-




Point out in the following examples the instances in which these letters quiesce, and those in which they retain their power as consonants, and give the pronun-







The principles which regulate the quiescence of the Ehevi (אֵֵֵ) are very fully illustrated by the examples given in the Grammar $(\$ 24)$ : exercises for practice in the application of them will be furnished by the inflexion of some of the irregular verbs.
*** Otium of the Ehevi. The term otiant has been applied to $\kappa$, in some instances in which it is preceded by a consonant with
 of $N$ was lost in pronunciation, - at least the authors of the vowelsystem have indicated this, by leaving it without punctuation. Compare, however, $\S 28,4$, note $\dagger$. - With these instances of $\kappa$ otiant are sometimes classed the few examples of ' preceded by a consonant with gilent Sheva: as אַּ , But the cases are different, - the latter having the pointing of other forms without ,
 arbitrarily passed over in pronunciation in the plural suffix $\stackrel{r}{r}$, which is sounded $\hat{a} v(\$ 8,4)$. $-H e$ has also been represented as otiant before Dagh. f. conjunctive, in such forms as מַּנֶוֹ
 § 27, 1.

Note. The vowel-letters ( $1,{ }^{`}$, and ^n when sounded as long $a$ ), "written in the line ay real letters" (§ 1,5 ), are original and esse!:tial elements of the words to which they belong: hence the vowelsigns written in connexion with then (nerely as representatives of the different vowel-sounds into which these feeble letters naturally now ( $(8,3)$ ) are also essential elements of the word, and of course, whether written fully or defectively, are immutable (§ 25, 1, 2). This, however, does not prevent the occasional, though very rare, exchange of one representative of the same vowel-letter for another; as, of • (defectively written ..) for '., of $~$ (defectively written © § 9 , Rern. 9) for i: see §27, Rem. 1. - Analogous to this is the other care in which a vowel becomes essentially immutable. see § $25,4$.

## SECTION V.

## CHANGES OF VOWELS; RISE OF NEW VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

 [\$§ 25, 27, 28, 29.]
## I. Changes of Vowels. (§§ 25, 27.)

From a comparison of nos. 1, 2, 3, of § 27, the student will perceive that a vowel,
a) is exchanged for the kindred short vowel, when it loses the tone in a closed syllable (comp. § 26,5);
b) is exchanged for the kindred long vowel, when the syllable in which it stands is changed from a closed to an open one (comp. § 26, 3);
c) falls away, when the tone is thrown forward.

In applying the rules given in $\S 27$, it should be observed that in some cases, when an addition is made to a word, the principles of syllabication allow of more than one change in its form. Thus,

1. The addition may begin with a vowel-sound (as $i_{\sim}$, , ) and be appended to a word ending with a con-
 the latter must, in this case, be united in a syllable with
 cause a syllable cannot begin with a vowel (§26, 1). The preceding vowel, when the tone is thus thrown forward, and the support of the consonant which closed the syllable is removed, must either be passed over so slightily as to be heard only as a half-vowel or vocal
 dwelt upon with the full long sound required in an open syllable. The most perfect amalgamation is effected by the former method, and hence it is found in the inflexion of verbs by person, gender, and number. The other method is most commonly used in connecting the suffix pronouns with nouns and verbs, where, from the nature of the case, a less perfect amalgamation is
required than in the inflexion of the verb by persons,




2. An addition beginning with a consonant (as $\underset{\sim}{\text {, }}$ - תֶ) may be made to a word ending with a consonant. The final vowel is then treated according to the principles contained in $\S 26,5$. Hence,
(1). When the tone is not thrown forward, the final


(2). When the tone is thrown forward,
a) The final syllable, if its vowel is short, remains unchanged. E. g. קִטְטְ
b) If the final vowel is long and unchangeable, the closing consonant must be united with the accessory syllable (since a long vowel cannot stand in a closed syllable without the tone), and of course must take a
 .
c) If the final vowel is long and changeable, the original division of syllables is usually retained, and the vowel, standing in a closed syllable without the tone, is exchanged for the kindred short one ( $(\S 26,5)$. E. g.


 T|?ְ̣. - Here also, as in the preceding case, the final consonant might unite itself with the accessory syllable, and leave the preceding long vowel to stand in an


3. When an addition is made to a word ending with two consonants, the second of the two is united with
the accessory vowel or syllable; the pronunciation of two consonants after a vowel occasioning a harshness which is avoided where it is practicable, and hence occurs only at the end of words : compare § 26, 7. E. g.


## II. Rise of new Vowels and Syllables. (§ 28.)

Three consonants may, in the course of inflexion, come before a vowel ( $\$ 28,1$ ),

1. When a consonant without a vowel is prefixed to a word whose initial consonant is also destitute of a vowel: e. g. when ?, ?, ?, T,, N, ?, ', \&c., are prefixed
 אֲּ. Write, with the proper pointing, ?, ¥, ?, !, before


2. When a vowel, preceded by two consonants, falls away on account of some accession at the end, which causes the tone to be thrown forward one syllable



 of these examples.
3. When the tone is thrown forward two syllables ( $\S 27,3,{ }^{*}$ ). Give the proper pointing to the following examples: in ini, (with the plural ending $\square^{\prime}$.) § 27, 3, $a$, (with the tone again thrown forward upon the suffix चֶם, amalgamated with the plural ending so

 (hence כַּנְפּיהֶם with_in place of . as in a few other cases.)
[^166]
## SECTION VI.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES FOR REVIEW OF THE PRECEDING SECTIONS.

Point out in the following words,

1. The division of syllables (distinguishing open and closed syllables, silent and vocal Sheva) ;
2. Instances in which the feeble letters quiesce, and those in which they retain their power as consonants;
3. Examples of Dagh. f. and of Dagh. l. (giving the reason for the insertion or omission of the latter), of Pattahh furtive, and of Mappiq.
4. Substitute a guttural in place of the letters enclosed between perpendicular lines, and supply the proper punctuation.




 , (ה) and ( $\S 29,4, a$ ),







For a further review of these principles, the First Lessons in Translating may be used as exercises in reading.

Give the reason for the changes (or for retaining the original form) in the following exercises, and supply the
proper punctuation where it is omitted. A perpendicular line marks a division of syllables.



 ת








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## SECTION VII.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { [ } 88 \text { S } 30-37 \text { ].] } \\
\text { INFLEXION OF THE VERB. } \\
\text { [B8 } 38-53 .]
\end{gathered}
$$

The sufformatives employed in the inflexion of the Præt., Imp., and Fut., and the praformatives of the Fut. $(\S 44,1 . \S 47,1,2)$, are the same in all the conjugations, and are presented in the following table; which contains also references for explanation of the variations from the several ground-forms.


It is at least natural for the voice to dwell less upon a long vowel in a penult than in a final tone-syllable. On this principle might be explained the transition (under the influence of the tone) from '. to the shorter vowel .. (Compare $\$ 27$, Rem. 1) in Hiph. Fut. as well as that from '. to _ in Hiph. Prat., and from .. to _ in the Prat. of the Verb mid. E, and of Piel, - Pattahh having, in tiut formation of the verb, arbitrarily come in place of '. and .. merely as a shorter vowel-sound.
When the forms of the Regular Verb have been made familiar, the student should go through the other paradigms $\dagger$

[^167]（in connexion with the section referred to at the head of each）and give the reason for every devia－ tion from the general form given in Parad．B．E．g． Inf．const．Niph．דָּקָ ；Parad．$D$（§ 22，1．§ 27，2，b）， Parad．$I$（ibid．）：Prat． 3 m．Niph．，Hiph．，and Hoph．，
 Parad．H（§ 19，2，a，20，1，b，for Hoph．comp．§ 52， Rem．9）；Parad．$K$（§ 24，1，$a$ ，and $2, b$ ，compared with $\S 68,2)$ ；Parad．L．（§ 24，2，b．§69，1）；Parad． 0 （§ 27，2，c）．－Imp．Kal，לטְּ，צִּר（§ 46，1．Rem．1）； Parad．H．（§ 19，3，a）；Parad．$K$（ibid．）；Parad． 0
 3．§ 28，2）；Parad．$H$（§ 19，2，a，20，1，b）；Parad．I （§ 67，1，——）；Parad．$K(\S 68,1)$ ；Parad．$L$（§ 24， $2, a)$ ．

After he has thus made the structure of these para－ digms familiar，he will be able to recognise their forms when pointed out in the subsequent exercises．They may in this way be gradually impressed upon the mem－ ory，－or a paradigm，or part of one，may be learned as a daily exercise．

In making the forms of the Verb familiar，care should be taken that the English expression for a tense，person，\＆c．may suggest the corresponding one in Hebrew．To the following exercises，which are given as a specimen，others should be added by the instructor or by the learner himself．${ }^{7}$ Tק to visit（prop．he visited，§ 39，note），
 woilt－，she will－，they（m．）will－；we have learned，ye（f．）have －，she has 一，thou（f．）hast－；Piel，he has taught（caused to learn），they have－，thou（f．）hast－，she has－，ye（m．）have－， I have 一，we have－，thou（ $f$ ．）shalt teach，we shall－，she shall －，they（f．）shall 一，teach ye（ $f$ ．），teach thou（ $m$ ），I shall 一，ye （ $m$ ．）shall－，they（ $m$ ．）shall－；Niph．I have been visited，ye（ $f$ ．） have been－，thou（ $m$ ．）hast been－，I shall be－，ye（ m ．）shall be －，thou（ $f$ ．）shalt be－，she shall be－，we shall be－；Pual， taught，to be taught，I shall be taught，she shall be 一，ye（m．）shall be 一，thou（ $m$ ．）shalt be 一，we shall be－；to cut off，cutting off， cut off（Part．），cut thou off（ $f$ ．），Hoph．I am cut off，we are 一， thru（ m. ）art－，they are－，ye（ $f$ ．）are－，she is 一，we she
－，thou（ $f$ ．）shalt be－，ye（m．）shall be－，I shall be－，they （ $f$ ．）shall be－；tread thou（ $m$ ．），tread ye（ $f$. ），they（ $m$ ．）shall－， thou（f．）shalt 一，ye（m．）shall－，Hiph．he hath caused to tread， they have－，I have－，ye（m．）have－，she hath 一，thou（f．） hast－，cause ye（m．）to tread，cause thou（ $f$. ．）－，cause ye（ $f$ ．）－， he will cause to tread，I will 一，ye（f．）will 一，she will－，they （ m ．）will－，thou（ f ．）wilt－，ye（m．）will —．

## SECTION VIII

［9̊ $78-93$.

## DECLENSION OF NOUNS．

The portions of the Grammar to be studied in con－ nexion with the following remarks are § $33,1-4$ ． § $86-91$ ．
The declension of Hebrew nouns is very simple，the general principles which regulate it being few and easily applied．Attention to the following suggestions，and to the table of references subjoined，will make the subject plain to the learner．When he has made himself familiar with the general forms of inflexion exhibited in the par－ adigms，the occasional deviations from them，which he will meet with in reading，will cause him no embarrass－ ment．

1．Construct State．By this is meant the state of the noun when it is connected，in grammatical construc－ tion，with a following one for expressing the relation of the Genitive（§ 87，1）．The two nouns being thus nearly connected in sense，are also uttered in very close connexion，almost as one word ；and as the tone is prin－ cipally thrown forward upon the second，the vowels of the first（if mutable）are naturally shortened in pronun－ ciation．Thus in the constr．st．sing．a long and mutable vowel in an open penult syllable falls away（ $\$ 27,3, a$ ）； a long and mutable vowel in a final closed syllable is shortened（§ 27，1．）E．g．םדָ．，blood；blood of bul－ locks，

[^168]
 tist (arlisl's hands), (§ 87, 2, a): : words (§ 27, 3, a) ; words of peace, ultimate and penult vowels of דָּר being both mutable, § דִבְרֵי שָׁלוֹם 27, 3, andhence

Rem. In some forms of the noun (see Paradigms VII, VIII, $b$, IX,) the tone is retained upon the final syllable in the sing. constr. st. Its stronger tendency to the final syllable, in this position of the noun, affects the preceding vowel (if mutable) as in the other paradigms, and in Parad. IX. occasions the substitution of Tseri for the feebler final vowel, Seghol : comp. § 74, 1, remarks 3 d 7 .
2. The declension of nouns exhibited in the first five paradigms consists merely in the application of the principles presented in Sect. V, I, to the last two vowels: in order to decline such nouns, therefore, the learner needs only to know the character of these vowels. Parad. VII. follows (with one exception, b, plur. absol.) the analogy of the verb, to which so many of the nouns thus declined properly belong ( $\$ 91$, expl. 7). Comp. $\S 27,3, b$, and the two modes of receiving an accession which begins with a vowel, Sect. V, I, 1.
3. Nouns of Parad. VI. are declined from the original monosyllabic root,* which, in derivatives from the regular
 This root, when it has no addition at the end, always
 שip, i. e. with a helping vowel, according to § 28,4 . With a final guttural the helping vowel is Pattahb (§ $22,2, a . \S 28,4$ ) ; with a middle guttural, the original Pattahh also, in the first of the above forms, may be


[^169]Some nouns of the form when they take suffixes. When, therefore, the inflexion of a noun of this form is required, its form with suffixes should be given,* as this can be known only from observing some instance in which the noun occurs with a suffix or other accession (as a paragogic letter, § 88) at the end. E.g. אֵרִּ (Num. 10:30) my land; the suffix form or monosyllabic root is therefore (Gen. 25:23) thy woomb: suffix form בִּטְ:

Analogous to these are the monosyllabic roots derived from irregular verbs; viz.
a) From verbs i i 4 , and " " 4, (§84, IV. 11), מוֹת for

 its form except when some addition is made at the end.
 These forms would, by analogy, take a helping vowel ( ates, though, on account of their final feeble letter, they
 $3, b$ ). For their inflexion, see § 91 , expl. 6, Rem. 6 .
4. Declension of Feminine Nouns. (§§ 92, 93.)
a) The original fem. termination $\Omega=$, which in the ubsol. sing. usually appears in the weakened form $\boldsymbol{n}_{\bar{r}}$ ( $\$ 79,2$, comp. § 89, 4), remains unchanged in the constr. st. and before a suff. beginning with a consonant; comp. Sect. V, I, 2, 2, a. E. g. with suff. . vowel, the final closed syllable becomes an open one (Sect. V, I, 1), and _ is lengthened to ${ }_{\tau}$; as ' ${ }^{\text {S }} 27$ 2, $a$. The final $\Omega$ also unites itself with the suff. 7, ( $\$ 90,2, c$ ) with the same effect on the preceding vowel; e. g. התוֹרָתֶ.
b) The fem. plur. ending $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ isuffers no change in the constr. st., and only the preceding vowels (if mutable) are affected by this position of the noun. In the Plural, all suffixes are of course attached to this shortened form ; comp. § 93.

## DECLENSION



## Parad.

constr. (absol. \& constr.) § 22, 2, Rem. 1.
light suff. expl. 6. Sect. V. I, 3. $\$ 22,3$.
grave suff, (ib.) \$28,3.
Plur.absol. expl. 6.
constr. (ib.)
light suff. $\$ 91, b$.*
grave suff. $\$ 89,2$.
Dual absol. ||
constr. $\S 87,2, a$.
VI.

$$
b ; c, e, f . * *
$$

Sect. V. I, 3. \$27, 1, (f) comp. [ф́22, 3, Rem. 2, $b, 69,2, a$.
(ib.) (f) $\$ 28,3 . \$ 9,3, b$.

- ( $\mathrm{c} \& \mathrm{f}$ ) Rem. 3.
- $\$ 27,1, b$.
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
(b) comp. expl. 6, Rem. 1, 2 d \%. \{ (c) $\S 27,1$.
*** A dash denotes that the same reference

[^170]
## OF NOUNS.



| no. 1. Rem. H | (b) no. 1. Rem. | no. 1. Rem. §87, c. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| § 27, 3, b. | $\} \$ 27,1 .$ |  |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { (a) as sing. l. suff. } \\ \text { (b) } \$ 86,4 . \text { Sect. V. } 1,1 . \end{array}\right.$ | (b) \$86,2. |  |
| \} (b) no. 4, b. |  |  |
| (as plur. absol.) | (b) § 27, 1. |  |
| § 87, 2, a. | - |  |

is to be made as in the preceding column.

[^171]The following examples (chiefly from the Lehrgebäude) will show the nature of the occasional deviations from the Paradigms, and may be of service to the learner after he has made himself familiar with the general forms of inflexion.



 , מְנוּ,



 lowing nouns of the form מלְ, have Hhireq under their first radical in the suffix form: :解,
 חּ צָ, The following take Seghol under the first radical : h N, (constr.


 ,שׁׁבְּך
 , עֲשֶ, phur. ;
 treated like the final Tseri of this paradigm, in $\boldsymbol{\sim}$,





 נִבְבְּריהֶם. IX. Seghol is sometimes retained in the constr. st. as in מבּשְׂנְה ,רֶשׂ.

## SECTION IX.

## EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

1. '? י my name; ? to (§ 100, 2) ; "? (Sect. V. II, 1), -
 II. -_Write in Hebrew, in our hand,* in thy (m.) hand, § 89, -_ in thy ( $f$.) hand, in your ( $m$. and f.) hand, (§ 91, Expl. 2, Rem.).
 Rem.
2. 7 , 2d I. § 19, 2, a. § 20, 1, b. § 100, 1. Write in Heb. from his, her, thy (f.) hand, your (pl. f.) hand.
3. D!?:, hands; Dual number, § 86 b , Parad. II.

 ' hands; ; ?̣ ?
 (with prep. כְ, § 100, and art. § 35, Rem. 2. $\S 19,3, b$ ), according to the glory.

4. ץำ, monosyl. root ץ:ר, Sect. VIII. 3.’V. I, 3. Parad. VI. $a$.

[^172]

11. (1it. invaard
 Write in Heb. in our midst, and in thy ( $f$.) midst, from their midst; my inward parts (light suff. §91, b), and in his inward part, and in their inward part, in my inward part (within me), in your inward parts.
12. עָ people; הָָּ the people, הָ art., § 35; 'נְ! הָyy elders of the people, plur. constr. Parad. V.; and of (the) elders of the people, 1 no. 3.
 , עֲ, Sect. VIII. 3, b, Parad. VI. § 91, expl. 6, Rem. 6 ;



15. לקָּ, Kal Prat. 1 Sing. T| $\S 27,3, a)$; $\uparrow$. Give the forms with suff. for I have taken them, thee ( $f$. ), him, her, you ( $m$. and $f$.).


 vowel changes see $\S 27,3, a$, and 2, $a$. Give the form with the suffixes her, him, us, them, and you ( $m$. and $f$.).
18. $\mathfrak{i}$, $\mathfrak{H}$, according to his ruling: hew he ruled; Inf. constr. בְטשׂ (a kind of verbal noun, §, 45, 1. § 129, 1 and 2), to rule, the ruling; with suff. ibero ( $=$ ŏ), § 60, 1. § 91, expl. 6, Rem. 4, his ruling ; Э, § 100.
 (began to reign), lit. in (or at) his reigning.
 ate (or eat), lit. in (at the time of) our eating. - The
principles of punctuation admit of another form ( $\$ 60$, Rem. 2) ;
 when ye eat.
21. 'וּרְרָּרִ, and when $I$ speak, - lit. and in my speaking; (קַּבֵּר) (like), Inf. constr. Piel of Give the forms with other suffixes.
22. ' 'שְׁכְ, that I may dwell (there), lit. for (in order
 (§ $100 . \S 129,2)$.

16
(2)

$$
2
$$

, , ,

CHRESTOMATHY. (

The following First Lessons in Translating have seen selected and arranged with much pains, in order to secure a great variety of forms in short and interesting phrases, and to conduct the student gradually from the simplest forms and constructions to those which are more difficult. - The first examples of the Irregular Verb are
 93. It may not be thought best that the student should commit to memory all the paradigms to which such forms belong, whilst he is going over these lessons the first time : but the inflexions of nouns, and of all the classes of verbs, should be made familiar before the study of the First Lessons is laid aside.

Some previous practice in translating is essential to the proftade study of the Syntax. The author's view of the use of the tenses ( $\$ \oint 123-126$ ) should be well understood, however, before much progress is made in the First Lessons. The necessary references to the other parts of the Syntax will be understood on a moment's inspection of the passages referred to.

In the notes (designed merely to aid the learner in his first grammatical study of the language) the writer has endeavoured to remove every difficulty which might embarrass the attentive and persevering student, without "encumbering him with help."

In the First Lessons the usual sign of the accent ( $>$ ) stands on the penult syllable when it has the tone, except at the end of a mentence, where it is marked by Silluq.

## FIRST LESSONS IN TRANSLATING

1 דְבַר :חּוָה :
: 2
 4 5

6

 9 9


 13





 20 20
21
22

 25 הוּא יָרַע יִּיָרַנוּ: 26

 2920 30
 32









42



46 שִׁמְעוּ בָנִים מוּסַר אָב :
 הנגֶה







54
55



59
 61 -62 62
 64










74 מָה רָאֹוּ בִבֵתֶּך:
 76
77 88
 80 81
 :
 85 לֹא־טוֹב הֶיוֹת הָאָּרָם לִבַּדּוֹ
 : 87 88

 ?














 106







עַלֹעִלְּתם:

 116
 אֶל־הַמְדִלְּוֹת:


 ש゙ְֹׁ


 :
 124
 126 :

## GENESIS, CHAPTER XII.




 4





















 17




 אֲשִׁר־לִּוֹ:

## CHAPTER XIII.

1
 3
 4


















 16
 18


(2)
$\square+$

## NOTES

## ON THE

## -IRST LESSONS IN TRANSLATING.

1. Word of Jehovah. דָּרָ , Parad. IV.
2. Is. 1:10. Hear ye the word of Jehovah. Art. omitted, as in the form Jehovah's word, § 108, 2. עשָׁ, Parad. F.
 I. § $22,2, b$. § 8, 4. Plur. maj. § 106, 2, b. Suff. § 89, table.
3. ibid. Ye have not hearkened to my voice. Position of the negative, § 142, 1. לip, Parad. I. Эto, § 100.
4. Deut. 21:7. Our hands have not shed this blood. 7., Parad. II. - (3)* ${ }^{*}$ 预. (4) $\oint 115,2$, and Note. § 27, 1. (5) art. § 35 ; 7 , Parad. II. - (6) § 37, 1, and Rem. 1.
5. Gen. 3: 10. Thy voice $I$ heard in the garden. (2) לip, §8, 4.
 ment of words, § $142,1, c$.
6. 1 Chron. 11: 1. Behold, thy bone and thy flesh [are] we.
 ?, Sect. IX. 3. (4) § 32, table.
7. 2 Sam. 4:7. He lay upon his bed. (2) (2) Kָּבָ, Kal. Part. § 131, 1, \& 2, c. (3) § 99, a. § 101. (4) (4) § 93, Parad. A.
8. Lev. 19:2. Speak to the whole congregation of the sons of
 (whole of) from (Parad. VIII.), see lex. no. 1, and observe the limitation of the following noun by a succeeding genitive. (4) (4)

9. Gen. 24:58. Wilt thou go with this man? (1) ?! § 150 ,

 (4) no. 5, art. § 109, 2.
10. Ps. 104: 1. Bless, O my soul, Jehovah. . $\mathfrak{7}$, Parad. E, Piel.


[^173]12. Gen. 41 : 57. Sore was the J......... ... ... ...... ........ in.
 (3) ל̀ ท, no. 9. (4) (Sect. IX. 8), § 29, 4, a, and $c$, Rem. Article, § 109, 1, Rem.
13. Prov. 4: 2. For good instruction I give to you. לֶקֹ (לקְ ), Parad. VI. Sect. VIII. 3. (3) § 110 , 1. (4) ${ }^{1}$ Rem. 3. § 124, 3. (5) § 101, 2, table, a. Arrangement, no. 6.
14. Gen. 42:38. My son shall not go down with you. Arrange-

15. Jer. 7:2. Stand in the gate of the house of Jehovah. (2) רשׁ (שׁׁ \$108, 2. (3) $\cap \mathfrak{Z}$, § 94. Sect. VIII. 3, a. Parad. VI. $h$.
16. Gen. 44: 16. God hath found out the guilt of thy servants. (1) no. 3. Art. § 107, 2. (2) Parad. O; with plur. nominative § 143, 2. (4) jiy, Parad. III. §8, 4. Art. omitted (no. 15). (5)

17. Gen. 32: 27. Let me go, for the morn ariseth. חלֵש்ָ, Parad.
 the falling away of the final vowel, $\$ 27,3, b$. Accent $(:)=$ to a comma or semicolon, ( $\$ 15,3$ ), class II, 5. $-\ni, \S 21,1$, comp. Sect. III. (3) Parads. $D$ and $P$. (4) (4) (רֻׁin $)$, Parad. VI, $d$.
18. Ex. 17: 4. What shall $I$ do to this people? (1) $§ 37,3$. (2) עֶָׁ, Parads. $\boldsymbol{D}$ and $\boldsymbol{P}$, Kal fut. 1 Sing. (3) = IX. 6. עy, Parad. VIII. a. (4) no. 5.
19. Gen. 3: 16. In sorrow shalt thou bring forth children. בצֶఝ

20. Gen. 40:11. And Pharaoh's cup [was] in my hand. (1) -ij, Parad. I. (3) Sect. IX. 2.
21. Prov. 3: 1. My son, my law forget thou not. (1) no. 9. Accent (1) § 15, class II. 7, comp. no. 17. (2) הフָin, §93, Parad. A. (4) $\Pi \geq \nLeftarrow .-§ 125,3, c$.
22. Gen. 3: 17. Because thou hast hearkened to the voice of thy roife. (2) nos. 2 and 4 . (3) omission of the art. no. 15. (4) नజָּ § § 94. § 93 , expl. 3, Rem. - § $29,4, b$.
23. 2 K. 20: 14. What said these men? (2) Parad. I. (3) no. 10 (3) ; T7 art. (4) §34, 1, and Rem. § 109, 2.
24. Gen. 28:1. Thou shalt not take a wife of the daughters of Canaan. (2) no. 21, and ref. (4) $\cap \supseteq, ~ § 94$; inflexion of plur. § 93 , Parad. $B$, a. pִ, Sect. IX. 4, Lex. 1.
25. Ps. 103: 14. He knoweth our frame. (2) Parads. $K$ and

26. Ex. 9:35. (2) no. 17.
27. Prov. 4:2. My law forsake ye not. (1) no. 21. (3) دy, Parad. D, § 29, 4, b. - comp. no. 21.
28. Ex. 10: 1. For I have hardened his heart, and the heart of his servants. (2) § 134, Rem. 2. (3) , 3 , Hiph. see lex. Kal 5, Hiph. 3. (5) h., Parad. VIII. (8) no. 16.
29. Gen. 9:13. My bow $I$ set in the cloud. (2) nưp,, Parad. VI, a. (3) no. 13. (4) ${ }_{j} \psi_{讠}$, Parad. IV. Prep. and art. $§ 32, B_{\text {, }}$ and Rem. 2. Use of the art. $\$ 107,3$, Rem. $1, b$.
30. Prov. 6: 20. Keep, my son, the commandment of thy father. (3) מיצְֶָ, § 93, Parad. A. (4)
31. Gen. 9:3. I have given to you all (2) no, 13. (4) no. 9.
32. Job 35: 2. This dost thou regard as right ? (1) no. 10 (1), and ' $\$ 34$, 1. (2) $\$ 124,3$. (3) Parad. II. $\$$ prep. for right = as right, see lex. دשָׁ, Kal 2.
33. Lev. 22 : 2. (1) no. 9. (5) ibid.
34. $2 \mathrm{~K} .19: 22$. Whom hast thou reproached and blasphemed? (2) comp. 18 (1). (3) Parad. E, Piel. (4) Piel.
35. Ex. 17: 2, Why should ye tempt Jehovah? (1) lex. B. and C. Gram. pg. 290, note. $\$ 37,1$, Rem. $a$; comp. Sect. IV. at the end. (2)
36. Judg. $20: 25$. All these drew $[$ hit. (were) drawers of $]$ the sword. (1) no. 9. (2) § 34, 1; omission of art. § 108, 2. (3) ףלָּ, Kal Part. Parad. VII.; construction, § 132, 2; omission of

37. Gen. 32: 30. Tell, I pray thée, thy name. (1) 7 H. Hiph. Imp. m. sing., lengthened form ( $\$ 48,5 . \S 52$, Rem. 3). (2) § 127, I. Dagh. $f$. conj. § 20, 2, a. (3) ? (see table) in pause ; elsewhere
38. Num. 10:30. To my land and to my kindred will I go. (1) prop. subst. in the constr. st.; see § 101. (2) Sect. IX. 8. (4) ח חֶֶֶiv, § 93, Parad. D, a. (5) no. 10 (1).
39. Jer. 6:20. Your sacrifices are not pleasant to me. $\mathrm{n}_{\ddagger}$, Parad. VI. e. § 91, Expl. 6, Rem. 1, 2 d T. (4) § 101, 2, a.
40. 1 Chron. 10: 4. Drans thy sword and thrust me through therewith. (1) no. 36. (2) ibid. (3) הּק $\$ 57,3, b$. § 60,2 . comp. § 91, expl. 6, Rem. 4. (4) § 101, 2, $a$, Rem. § 151, 3, 2, 2d I.
41. Ex. 10:3. Let my people go, that they may serve me. (1) no. 17. (2) no. 18. (3) יעבָּ, Kal, suff. $\$ 57,3, a$. $\S 8,4$, and $\$ 9,9,1, b$. Use of $!$ with the Fut. $\$ 125,3, a$ comp. § 126, 1, $c$, and § 152, 1st $\Pi$, and let. $e$.
42. 1 Chron. 12: 18. Peace to thee, and peace to thy helpers; for thy God helpeth thee. (1) Parad. III. (4) Ky, Kal Part.
(Parad. VII.) plur. with suff. $\eta_{\%}^{7}, \oint 89,2$, Rem. 1. Accent and fol mute, comp. no. 17. (6) $\mathrm{IV}_{\mathrm{r}}$, Kal Prat. 3 m . sing. with suff. $(\$ 57,3, b) T_{1}$, which unites with itself the final stem-letter. Vowel changes, § 27, 2, a, and 3, $a$. - § 124, 3.
43. Ex. $10: 24 . \quad G o$, serve Jehovah. (1) no. 10 (1).
44. 1 K. 5: 22. I have heard that which [the message which] thou hast sent unto me. (2 and 3) § 121, 2. (5) § 101.
45. Judg. 17: 2. Behold, the silver is with me; 1 took it. (1)
 accus. of place, ( $\S 33, c . \S 116,1, b)$; with suff. § 101 , Rem. 1. Accent comp. no. 17. (4) emphatic, $-I$ took it; comp. no. 28 (2). (5) Sect. IX. 15.
46. Prov. 4: 1. Hear, ye children, a father's instruction. (3) Parad. II.
47. Jer. 16: 2. Thou shalt not take for thyself a wife, and thou shalt not have [lit. there shall not be to thee] sons and daughters, in this place. (2 and 4) no. 24. (3) § 122, 1, b. (6) רָָּה Marad. $\boldsymbol{P}$, Kal fut. plur. 3 m. (9) no. 24 (4). (10) prep. and art. Sect. IX, 6. - Parad. III.
48. Ps. 104: 24. The earth is full of thy creatures. Arrangement, no. 12. (1) פָּלָ, Parad. O, § 73, Rem. 1. (2) § 91, expl. 6, Rem. 1. (3) קִִִּ
49. Job 35: 3. What will it profit thee? (1) §37, 1, a

50. Job 35: 6. What wouldst thou do unto him? (2) (2) Parads. P and D. Kal fut. § 125, 5. (3) Dagh. f. conj. §20, 2, a.
51. Prov. 7: 1. My son, preserve my words, and my precepts shalt thou treasure up with thee. (3) אמֶר , Parad. VI. b. § $29,4, a$. (4) no. 30. § 8, 4. (5) צָ, § 125,3, c. (6) no. 45.
52. Ex. 9:5. To-morrow will Jehovah do this thing, in the land. (1) comp. § $98,2, b$. (4) no. 1. (5) no. 5. accent Tiphhha. (6) No. 12. Sect. IX. 6.
53. 1 K. 5: 20. And the wages of thy servants will I gize to thee, according to all which thou shalt say. (1) $\mathfrak{\urcorner} \mathfrak{T}$ שָׁ, Parad. IV (3) no. 13. (4) accent Zaqeph-qaton. (7) fiual Tseri, §67, 1.
54. Lev. 20: 2. The people of the land shall stone him with stones. (1) omission of art. § 109, 2. (3) רָ,$~$ comp. no. 41 -
 § 107, Rem. $1, b$.
55. 1 Sam. 12: 10. But now, deliver us from the hand of our enemies, and we will serve thee. (1) § 152, b. § $147,2,2 \mathrm{~d} \pi$.
 ¢ 52, Rem. 1, and 3. (4) בیָ , Kal Part. Parad. VII. (5) no. 41. suff. §57,4.
56. Lev. 20:14. With fire shall they burn him and then (eas). (1) Parad. VIII.; prep. and art. no. 54. (2) indeterminate third person, § 134, 3. (3 and 4) § 101, Rem. 1.
57. Num. 6: 24. Jehovah bless thee, and preserve thee. (1) Parad. $\boldsymbol{E}$; § 59, Rem. 4. (3) § 59. Suff. $\mathrm{T}_{:}$; the Sheva becoming Seghol in pause $\$ 29,4, b$, the final vowel of the verb falls away as before other suffix beginning with a vowel.
58. Ex. 10: 25. Thou shalt put into our hand sacrifices. (1) no. 53. (3) no. 39.
59. Gen. 22: 12. Stretch not forth thy hand against the lad. (2) no. 17. (1 and 2) no. 21. (4) no. 38; lex. $A, 3$.
60. Judg. 6: 8. I brought you up from Egypt. (1) no. 28. (2) no. 17, Hiph. (3) no. 56 (4).
61. Ps. 105 : 11.
62. Judg. 6: 13. Our fathers have told us. (1) סָּ, Piel. (3) no. 30, § 86, 4.
63. Jer. 43: 9. Take in thy hand great stones. (1) no. 24. (4) - $\$ 8,4$.
64. Judg. 17: 6. In those days there was no king in Israel. (1)
 (Parad. VI. $h$ ) nothing of a king $=$ no king. $\$ 149,6 \mathrm{th} \Pi$.
65. Ex. 9:33. And rain was not poured upon the earth. (1) רָּר, Parad. IV. (3) Niph. Parad. H. (4) He local, § $88,2, a$.
66. Lev. 21:23. Unto the altar he shall not approach, because a blemish [is] in him. (2) חumpern, Parad. VII. (4) Parad. H; accent Tiphhha.
67. Gen. 42: 33. By this shall I know that ye are true. (1) \$ 34, 1. comp. § 105, 3. (2) no. 25. (4) $\dagger \ni$, Parad. I.
68. Ex. 10: 21. Stretch forth thy hand tovards heaven. (1)
 Rem.
69. Ex. 17: 2. Give us water, that we may drink. (1) no. 13.

70. Judg. 6: 16. (1) הָָּה Marad. P. (2) no. 14.
71. Ps. 104:24. (1) no. 9; lit. their whole. (2) (2) $(\underset{\sim}{r}$ § 92. Parad. A. (3) no. 50.
72. Gen. 1: 29. (5) § 109, 1, Rem. (6) Parad. VI. § 90, expl. 6, Rem. 2.
73. Judg. 9: 10. Go thou, - reign over us. (1) no. 10. (3) $7^{7}$ ָ, Imp. § 46, Rem. 2. (4) § 101. prop. a plur. noun (accus. of place, $\S 116,1, b$, in the space above, $\S 106,2, a)$, with a nominal suff.
74. 2 K. 20: 15. (2) (3) no. 15.
75. Num. 1:4. And there shall be with you a man of each tribe. (1) no. 45. (2) no. 70 ; plur., as required by the sense. (3 and 4) distributively, § 106,4 . (5) ?, § 113,$2 ;-t$ he tribe (i. e. which he represents).
76. Gen. 8: 20. And he offered burnt offerings upon the altar. (1) הלָּ, Hiph. fut. apoc. § 48. §74, 5, and Rem. 3, d. Vav conversive, § $48 \mathrm{~b} . \S 126 \mathrm{~b}$;
77. Gen. 42:33. The dearth of your houscholds (their necessities $=$ what is necessary for them) take and go. (2) ¡iدỵ, Parad. III. ; the penult vowel falling away in the constr. st. a helping vowel is required under the first radical, § 28,1 and 2. (3) no. 15. Methegh, § 9, 1, Rem. (4) no. 24. (5) i, § 102, Rem. d. - No. $10 ; \oint 29,4, b$.
78. Judg. 21: 18. But we cannot give them wives of our daughters. (3) לכ,$\S 77$, Rem. 1. (4) $\}$ for $\}$ * pointed thus before many monosyllabic words, and dissyllables with a penult accent. กภู, no. 13 ; Inf. constr. § 65, Rem. 3. § 27,1 (5) § $100,2, c$. (6) no. 22. (7) nо. 24. p, orig. signif. part of, § $99, a . \S 151,1$, $a, \beta$, and 3, c. Lex. 1 .
79. Gen. 8: 16. Go forth from the ark, thou, and thy wife, and thy sons and thy sons' wives, with thee. (1) Nצָ. § 75, 2, d. Parads. $K$ and $O$. (3) תֵָּה, § 93 , Parad. A. (7) no. 78 (6). (9) no. 45 Division of the verse by the accents nearly as in the translation.
80. Ex. 17 1. And there was no water for the people to drink. (1) no. 64 (3). (2) no. 69. (3) ibid. (4); Infin. constr. with ?; lit. for the drinking of the people, § 129.
81. Prov. 11:28. He that trusteth in lis riches, he shall fall.
 (2) $\mathfrak{\sim}$
82. Ex. 18: 3. I am a sojourner in a strange land. (1) Parad.
 for the doubling of ', comp. § 91 , expl. 8, Rem. 3.
83. Judg. 17: 3. And now I will return it to thee. (2) (2, Parad. M, Hiph. fut. Suff. § 57, 4, table.
84. Gen. 3: 19. (2) Parad. IV.
85. Gen. 2: 18. (3) no. 70. Infin. constr. § 129, 1, $a$; followed by the subject, § 130, 2. (4) art. § 107, 2. (5) ל, prep. in; 7 ? noun, Parad. VIII.; i, suff.; § 98, 2, a.
86. Gen. 9:9. And I, - behold I establish nuy covenant with you. (1) comp. § $142,2$. (2) § $103,2 . \S 332$. For forms with suffixes see lex.; for the falling away of in final, comp. § 74, Rem. 19. (3) no. 83. § $131,2, a$, and Rem. 1. (5) Parad. I. fem. gender, §91, $a$.
87. Ex. 8: 5. How long shall I pray for thee, and for thy ser-
 Hiph. (4) no. 16.
88. Ex. 2: 13. Wherefore wouldst thou smite thy fellow? (1) , lex. D, 3. § 147, 5. (2) (2) § 75, 2, b. Hiph. fut. § 125, 3, d. (3) 느, Parad. I.
89. 1 K. 5: 15. (5: 1.) For he had heard that him they had anointed king in the place of his father. (2) pluperf. § 124, 2. (4.) no. 56. (5) no. 56 (2). (6) ?, lex. $A, 3$. (7) subst. in the constr. st. prop. space beueath; hence (lex. 2) place, stead; here accus. loci, § $116,1, b:$ comp. § $99, a$.
90. 1 K. $5: 19$. Thy son, whom $I$ will put in thy place upon thy throne, he shall build the house to my name. (1 and 7) § 142, 2. (4) no. 89 ; plur. § 101 , at the end, $§ 106,2, a$. (5) orig. a subst. (space over or abo*e) constr. st. of $\nu_{\text {, }}$, and accus. of place; comp. $\S 101$, at the end of the $\S$. (6) כָּ Parad. VII. see expl. 7, Rem. $b$; omission of Dagh. $f$. $§ 20,3, b$. With the accent the suff. 7 : becomes $\eta_{\%}^{7}(\$ 29,4, b$,$) ; without the accent the form is on$ account of the guttural. (S) (10) Sect. IX. I.
91. Jer. 44: 25. We will perform our vows which we have voved. ( 1 and 2) § $128,3, a$. (4) Parad. VI.
92. Judg. 20: 28. Go up ; for to-morrow $I$ vill deliver him into thy hand. (5) suff. sing. (thy) collectively, with reference to the people as a whole; comp. no. 94 (3 and 5 ) : § 144 , Rem. 1, 2d $\Pi$, is not applicable here.
93. Job $40:$ 4. Behold, $I$ am vile! what shall $I$ answer thee? (2) $L_{-} P_{T}$, Parad. $G$; for accent, see $§ 15$, table (14), and Rem. 2. (4) no. 83 ; suff. $\S 57,4$, table; with two accusatives (§ 136,1 ), see lex. Hiph. 2, b.
94. Lev. 19:33. And if there shall sojourn with thee a stranger in your land, ye shall not oppress him. (1) prop. and when; see Gram. p.280, 6th $\Pi, b$, and Lex. B, 3. (2) 7月ג, Parad. M. (4) no. 82. (7) הנָָ, § 75, 2, e. Hiph., fut. Forn of prohibition, comp. nos. 24 and 21. (3 and 5) suff. comp. no. 92.
95. Lev. 19: 2. Be ye lioly; for holy ant I. (1) Parad. III. (2) no. 70. Arrangement, $§ 142,1, b$.
96. 2 K .19 : 22. Against whom hast thou raised the voice? (3) רוּ , Parad. M, Hiph. (4) strictly, indefinite: Dagh. f. conj. § 20, 2, $a$.

[^174]97． 2 Chron．11：4．（3）accent Pazer．（7）לָּ ก5ָ，§ 94.

98．Is．37：10．Let not thy God，in whom thou trustest，deceive
 with suff．$\eta_{\text {：}}$ which becomes $T_{- \text {－：}}(\$ 22,3)$ on account of the guttural； see $\S 59$ ，Rem．4，and $\S 73,2,3 \mathrm{~d} \Pi .-\S 8,4$ ．（4 and 7）in whom， lit．who－in him；§ 121，1，and Rem．2．（6）no． 81.

99．Ex．17：2．Comp．no．35．（2）ב’？，Parad．N，Kal fut． （7コンクู่）with Nun paragog．（ $\$ 47$, Rem． 4 ）；for the shifting of the tone，comp．§ 71，6．（3）§ 101，Rem． 2.

100．Esth．1：11．For fair of aspect was she．（2）Jiv，fem． הָָu，§ 92,1 ；inflexion $\S 93$ ，Parad．$A$ ；connexion with the fol－ lowing subst．§ 110，2．（3）Parad．IX．

101．Ps．104：24．（1）lex．B，2．（2） 2 ָ ，Parad．G．（3）Par－ ad．IX．

102．Num．10：29．（1）no．10；Kal Imp．with $i_{\text {r }}$ paragog．
 （in order to conform to the lex．）הֵטִיב should be added as Hiph．of دiv．Use of Prat．（and we do thee good），comp．§ 124， 6.

103．Is． 62 ： 11 ．（2）no． 24 （4）．－$\S 105,3, d$ ；see lex．5．（5） עשׁׁ．．，Parad．$E$ Abstract for concrete，§ 104，2，2nd \｜（6）（com－ eth）ㄴּ．§ 75，$^{2}, f$ ．

104．Gen．3：19．（1）הy．§ 93 ，Parad．A．（2）Parad．VIII． （3）Parad．I ．（4）（ $\$ 99, a$ ．（6）（thy returning）Inf．constr．with suff．governed by the prep． $7 \mathcal{L} ;$ § $129,1 . \S 130,1 .-(7) \S 151,3, d .(8) \S 93$ ， Parad．B，c．－לכiñ（with penult accent）§ 29，3，b．

105．Jer．6：22．（4）constr．st．（5）Parad．III．
106．Ps．105：42．（5）Parad．VI．c．（4 and 5）§ 104，1，with suff．§ 119,6 ；lit．his vord－of－holiness．
 Parad．VI．a．（7）

103．Jer．14：21．（2）פָּ，Parad．G，Hiph．fut．（3）no． 86 （4）no． 102.

109． 2 Chron．11：4．（1）no．104．（2）§ 122, Rem．1．（5） lit from with me，see $§ 151,2$ ，and $a$ ．（6）（10），see lex．Niph． 1.

110． 2 Chron．10：10．（2）no．28．here，literally，made heavy． （4）ע，Parad．VIII．（5）！but ；thou，no． 28 （2）．（6）no． 93 ； Hiph．Imp．；§ 127，1．（7）§151，2，a，with suff．of plur．noun， § 101 ；－lit．lighten from upon us．

111．Jer．6：26．（2）§9乌，3．（3）no．103．（4）（4
112． 1 Sam．25：35．And to her he said，－go up，in peace，to the house．（4） $42 ;\}, \$ 151,3, e, 2 d$ T．But comp．Lex．B， 3 ．

113． 2 Chron．10：11．（1）see lex．עू．עמַּ，（3）Hiph．（4）
 （9）§ $151,3, b$ ．
114．Ex．17：5．（1）מַּ，Parad．IX．（2 and 4）no．98．⿻コ一寸 ，no． 40．（3）no．88．（6）רì？；omission of Dagh．$f$. in $; \S 20,3, b$ ， use of the art．§ 107,3 ．（7）no． 63.
115． 2 K．19：22．（1－4）no．96．（5）నנ，§ 75，2，a；Vav conversive，no．76．（6）Parad．III．accus．§ 116，1．（7）$\dagger: y$, ，Parad VI．$l$ ；Dual with suff．

116．Judg．13：11．（1）Dap，Parad．M．（2）no．10．（1 and 2） converse fut．§ 71，Rem．4．§ 126 b，2．（4）prop．plur．noun，space behind（comp．$\$ 106,2, a$ ）；construct state and accusative of place， in the rear of 一，hence as a prep．after；comp．§ 101．（5）no． 22. 117．Judg．20：32．（3）accent Zaqeph－qaton．（4）נג，Kal fut．； with He paragog．§ 48 ．§ 126，1．（5）$\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{n}}$ נ，Kal Prat．p：，§ 20 ， 2，b．Suff．him，collectively，as often in English．－$\$ 124,6 ;{ }^{\prime}$ let us flee，－and we draw them away，§c．（7）（9）（9）（9）§ 93 ， Parad．A．p（without Dagh．）§ 20，3，b．

118．Ex． $10: 22$ ．（1）no． 68 （1）．§ 75， $2, b$ ；converse fut．no． 116.
119．Neh．1：8．（2） 4 站，§ 29，4，$b$ ；should ye deal faithlessly $=$ if ye 一，comp．§ 125，5．（4）${ }^{\text {T，}}$ ，Hiph．

120．Ex．10：23．（3 and 5）§ 122，Rem．4．（5）no．97．（8） no．109．（9）no． 90 （4）．（10）§ 95,1 ．§ $118,1, a$ ；accusative designating length of time，§ $116,2, b$ ．（11）no． 64.

121．Gen． $40: 13$ ．（1）$\underset{i}{ } \mathrm{in}$ ，and Tiy，Infin．absol．of the verb TIy，in the continuing $=$ whilst yet；comp．lex．עוֹ，5．（2）tine how long as in preced．no．（4）no．115．（7）§ 94．（8）；שix Synt． no． 117 （5）．（10）${ }^{( } \boldsymbol{F}$ ，Parad．VIII．

122．Jer．7：23．（3）then am I．（5）\} (§ 28, 2. § 23, 2,-), comp．

123．I Sam．16：2．（1）§93，Parad．A．（2）Parad．IV．§ 106， 1. （5）tone，§ 44，Rem．5，b．（6）זָּ，Inf．constr．§ 139，2．（7） § 100 ，fine－．（8）no． 103.

124．Ex．4：2．（1）§ 37，1，a．（4）no． 114.
125．Gen．6：21．（2 and 3）？，§ 151，3，e．（4）all kinds of， § 109，1，Rem．（5）Parad．II．（7）Parad．I；§ 125，3，d．

126．Gen．35：9．（1）הָהָ Niph．fut．apoc．with Vav conver－ sive $; \S 74$, Rem．7．（2）omission of art．§ 107，2．（5）no． 121. prop．Inf．absol．in the accusative expressing a qualifying circum－ stance（ $\$ 128,2$ ）with repeating $=$ again $; \$ 98,2, d$ ．（ 6 ）at（or in）his going $=$ when he went ； $\mathfrak{N}(\$ 8,4)$ no．103，Inf．constr．： comp．Sect．IX，19．（7） $\mathfrak{i P}$ ，Parad．II．（9）；without Daghesh， § $20,3, b$ ．

## GENESIS, CHAPTER XII.

V. 1. (5 and 6) no. $10 ; \S 151,3$, e. (8) no. 38 ; verbal form denoting often the place of the action, $\$ 83,14 . \$ 84, \mathrm{III}$. (ult.)
 cusatives,§ 136, 1.
V. 2. (1) II. Rem. 3. (2) $\}$, see lex. $A, 3$. (4) no. 57. (1 and 4) if without Dagh. 1. $\$ 21,2, c$, and $\$ 57,3, b$. Divide thus: $v^{\text {e }} \leqslant \hat{o}-$
 agog. fut.; with Vav conversive, § 48 b. (7) !, § 102, 2, c.In this and similar cases, Methegh may have indicated such a delay of the voice upon the short vowel, as is required in an open syllable: compare its use in the combinations -: i- \&c. $\$ 26,3$ Rem. $d$. Sect. II. Rem. 2. - Equivalent to thou shalt be, $\S 127,1$. (ult.) Parad. B, c.
V. 3. (2) Piel Part. plur. (3) no. 93; Piel Part. sing.; with suff. $\S 91$, expl. 7, b. The change from the plur. to the sing. is merely a poetic variation in the form of expression. (4) אָּי (7) followed by a definite substantive. (8) משְָּׁקָּ, Parad. B, § 93, expl. I, 3d ๆ. (ult.) no. 104.
V. 4. (3) according to what $=$ as. (4) § 51, Rem. 1. (5) § 101. (8) no. 45. (11) § 104, 2, c. $(12-15)$ § 118 . (16) no. 79; at

V. 5. (12) Parad I. with suff. $\mathrm{D}_{\boldsymbol{r}}$. (14) § $29,4, b$. (16) Parad. VI. (נַּנְּשְ). (21) no. 10. ל ל, pointing, no. 78 (4); use with the Infin. lex. ! CC, 1. (22) comp. no. 65. Last word but one, אְֲֶָ (Hahn's

V. 6. - Observe the modifications of the general idea of motion
 apposition), § 112, 3. (10) art. § 107, 1.
V. 7. (1) no. 126. (10) § 34,1 , and Rem. 1. (11) (1) vers. fut. $\$ 74$, Rem. 3, a. (13) no. 66: §83, 14,-place where sacrifice is offered. (15) רָאָה, Niph. Part.; art. § 107, 2d T, fine.
V. 8. (2) § 147, last $\mathbb{T}$ (3) (3) (הָהּ ), Parad. VIII. comp. § 81, 2 ; with He local, § $88,2, a$. (4) (opp) Parad. VI.; on the east, comp. § 147, 1, 3d $\pi$. (7) no. 118 . (8) ל ֶix, § 91 , expl. 6, Rem. 3. (11) on the sea, i e. on the side towards the sea. adverbialis) as adverbial designations, - with Bethe. on the west, and $A i$ on the east.
V. 9. (1) נָּ2. (3 and 4) absolute Infinitives, used adverbially (eundo et castra movendo) with going and removing, i. e. continually removing; § 128, 3, b, and Rem. 3. (5) גֶ (Parad. VI.) with art and He local.
V. 10. (1) converse fut. of Dagh.) no. 126 (9). Methegh may here indicate a delay of the voice upon the vowel, in an open syllable, - vs. 2 (7), -or in a closed one of the form described Sect. II, Rem. 1: comp. its use in ง (2) no. 12. (4) no. 14. (6) ה local. (7) no. 94 (2). ל, vs. 5 (21). (10) Parad. V.
V. 11. (2) vs. 4 ; here with reference to time. (3) בPp, Hiph. (4) no. 103. § 139, 2. (6) $)$, comp. § 126 b.—— (15) $\begin{gathered}\text { Tֶָ }\end{gathered}$, fem. (\$ָּ , ( $\$ 92,1$, Parad. IX.), Parad. B, a. ( 15 and 16) Synt. no. 100.
V. 12. (1) comp. § 124, 4. (2) when, § $152, e, 3 \mathrm{~d}$ T, b. (4) no. 56. (6 and 9) § 124, 6. (ult.) $\boldsymbol{N}$, Piel.
V. 13. (3) §94. (5) pַ, lex. $A, 2$, to the end, it may be woll

V. 14. (2) э̣, lex. B, 5, b. -Infin. constr. followed by the subject in the genitive, $\$ \mathbf{1 3 0}, \mathbf{2}$ : the form has here the effect of the pluperfect; - when Abraham had entered. (ult.) § 98, 2, b. - א see $\S 32$, Rem 6, 2 d T.
 3, b. - (9) no. $24 ;$ § 65, Rem. 2. (11) § 116, 1, a.
V. 16. (1) $\}$ sign of the dative $\S 115,1$. (5) see lex. \} $A, 4, b$.
 3d ex. (9 and 10) lex. הָּנָּ, 4.
V. 18. (5 and 6) comp. nos. 67 and 124. (8 and 12) Dagh. f. conj. § 20, 2, a. (11) no. 37.
V. 19. (5)§ $126 \mathrm{~b}, 4$ th $T^{*}(7)$ § $122,1$. (8) for a wife, comp. lex. \} $A, 9$, last ex. (ult.) $\geqslant \$ 102$, Rem. $d$.
V. 20. (1) Piel Fut. apoc. § 74, Rem. 9. (2) lex. לע $A$, 2, f. (ult.) § 113, 1.
*** As an exercise on the use of the accents, point out the tonesyllables marked by them, and the instances in which they divide the verse in accordance with the sense or otherwise.

## CHAPTER XIII.

V. 1. (1) Kal fut. comp. no. 76; § 74, Rem. 3, d, and Rem. 14. (ult.) see lex. चנֶֶ, a.
V. 2. (4-6) prep. and art. Sect. IX. 6. § 107, Rem. 1, b. (4 and 6) Parads. IX. and IV.
V. 3. - מפַּע (2, Parad. II. The phrase expresses the manner or node of proceeding, (by encampments or stations), and hence ? may be referred to lex. $\Lambda, 9$ : according $t$ (or by) his encampments, i. e. from one encampment, or station, to another. (9 and 11) § 121 , 1, and Rem. 2. comp. no. 98. (13) המחֶּ, Parad. A. (14 and 17)

* And ${ }^{152,1, ~ e ; ~ i n ~ e f f e c t, ~ t h a t ~ I ~ m i g h t ~ t a k e . ~}$
 a noun in the accusative, as an adverbial designation (\$116); with a dividing or separating of Bethel (to the one side), and a dividing of $A i$ (to the other); hence, in the midst, between.
V. 4. (7) ר. V. 5. (2) $\}$ as in $12: 16$ (5). (4) § 151 , 1, a, $\alpha$. (ult.) § 91, expl. 6, Rem. 3. (3) § 107 , 2 d ๆ, fine.
V. 6. (5) دeviv for docolling $=$ so that they might dwell; lex. ?
 suff. - in their union = together. (10) בב Parad. VIIl. ; in pause, § 29, 4, a. (12) no. 78 (3). (13) § 139, 2.
V. 7. (4) (4)Kal Part. (Parad. IX.) plur. constr. st. (4-6) Abraham's herdsmen, § 1121.
V. 8. (5) § 149, Һ
(7) comp. 12: 10. § $126,2, b$. Parad. A. (16 and 17) nos. 23 and 97. § 111.
V. 9. (1) § $150,2,2 \mathrm{~d} \%$. (4) פָּנֶה (as Parad. IX.) lex. D, 2. \} in (lex. $B, 1$ ). (5) ${ }^{\text {; }}$; for the penult accent see $\S 29,3, b$. (7) lex. לy, $A, 3$, and $C, 11,2:$ comp. § 151,3, b. (9) (9) with art.; accus. of place whithr. (10) $\underset{\sim}{\text { Di }}$, Parad. $K$; fut. paragog. § 126,1 . then, $\S 124,6, \mathrm{Rem} .1$. (12) |prper Parad. III. (ult.) לאֻp. ( 10 and ult.) § $38,2, c$.
V. 10. (5) (7) § 74, Rem. 3, c. (8) Parad. II. (11) no. 71. (12) Parad. IX.; omission of the copula, $§ 141$. (13) vs. 9, plur. constr. (14) ששׁח Picl Inf. constr.; in the genitive, followed by another genitive as the subject and by the accus. of the object $(\$ 130$, 2 and 3), -before Jchoval's destroying Sodom. (13-19) parenthetical. (20) no. 6. (20,21) comp. lex לN, 3, 2d I. (24) Niz Infin. constr. with suff ( 2 pers. $§ 134,3, c$ ); in the accusative ( $\$ 116,3$ ), - to thy coming = till thou comest, i. e. along its (the Jordan's) course to Zoar.
V. 11. (8) $13: 9 .(10)$ see lex. ${ }^{\text {pr, }} 3$, c. mid. comp. § 147,1 , 3d T. (12 and 14) no. 120.
V. 12. (7) no. 117 (7). (8) art. § 107, 2.
V. 13. (3) Parad. VIII. (5) § 100, last II comp. \} ה W, lex. ? $A, 1$.
V. 14. (5) no. 116. (§) § 151, 2, a. (9) §75, 2, a. Imp with $\kappa_{\mathrm{T}}, \S 127$, 1. (18) no. 105. (18-21) with ${ }^{2}$ local, §88,

V. 15. (6 and 7)§ 131, 2, a.
V. 16. (1) and I make, § 124, 4, and remark. (4) no. 84. (6) for, lex. B, 3. (8) no. 78. (9) § 122, Rem. 2. (10) מָנָה, Infin. constr. ; complement of preced. verb, $§ 139,2$; followed by the proper case of the verb, $\S 130,1$.
V. 17. (4) (4) Parad. VI. (5) (5) do.

A

## HEBREW READING B00K:

PREPARED WITH REFERENCE TO THE TRANSLATION

OF
RÖDIGER'S EDITION OF GESENIUS'S GRAMMAR.

BY
BENJ. DAVIES, Ph. D., LIPS.

## READINGLESSONS.

## I. SCRIPTURE PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { : }{ }^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 4 \\
& 5 \\
& \text { 6 }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 8 } 8 \\
& \text { : } 9 \\
& \text { : } 10
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 13 \\
& 14 \\
& \text { : } 15 \\
& 16 \\
& 17 \\
& 18 \\
& \text { : } 19 \text { וְצָתָה } \\
& 20
\end{aligned}
$$

[^175]26 : 27 : 28 : 29 30
 : 32 33 34 35
 37 38 30
 : 41 42 : 43
 : 45 46

48 49

50 51
52

54 55 : 56 57 : 50
 61 62 : 63 : 64
65




## II. EXTRACTS IN PROSE.

## 1. The Priests' Benediction.

Num. vi. 22-26.
22
 25 :
2. Jotham's Parable.

Judges ix. 6-15.






v. 8. מלכח קרי



 14



$$
\text { v. מלבי קרי . } 12
$$

## 3. Elijah's Ascension.

2 Kings ii. 1-12.
1












俞






[^176]
## III. EXTRACTS IN POETRY.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF HEBREW POETRY.

Before the student begins to translate the following Extracts, it is proper in a few brief statements to call his attention to the subject of Hebrew Poetry. Those who may desire fuller instruction are referred to Lonoth's Lectures on Heb. Poetry, especially Lect. xix.; Herder's Geist der Hebr. Poesie ; De Wette's Einleitung in die Psalmen; Ewald's Poetische Bücher, I.; and Nordheimer's Hebrew Grammar, §§ 1120-1130.

The greater part of the Old Testament is poetical in its composition, though only the Psalms, Job, and Proverbs (technically called תמֵn, from the first letter in the Hebrew name of each) are generally termed poetical books. The style of these writings is, however, very unlike what is called poetry in most other languages. It does not consist in metre, like the versification of the Greeks, the Romans, and nearly all other nations; and much less does it exhibit rhyme (see below), like most of the poetry of modern Europe and Asia. In its form or structure, the poetry of the ancient Hebrews was distinguished from prose, chiefly if not solely by brevity of expression and by impressing the sentiments in the way of repetition, comparison, or contrast. Hence it has some characteristics of language, viz. the use of peculiar words, forms of words, \&c., as explained in the Grammar, § 2, 4. But the grand characteristic, which in fact constitutes its rhythm, is a proportion or correspondence in thought and expression* between the clauses of a sentence, which accordingly in its simplest form consists of only two members ( (\$iotixov).

Hence the poetry or rhythm of the Hebrews is generally termed parallelism, $\dagger$ as consisting in a mutual correspondence between the members of a period. And the different modes of exhibiting this parallelism mainly constitute the varieties of the poetic style, of which these are the principal:-1. Lyric Poetry, consisting chiefly of such compositions as the Psalms, distinguished by the effusion of pious sentipents. 2. Epic Poetry, as in Job-at least the style of this book resembles the epic more than any other production of the classic muse. 3. Didactic Poetry, as in the Proverbs. 4. Pastoral Poetry or

[^177]Idyls, such as the Canticles. 5. Prophetic Poetry, which is best exemplified in the earlier prophetic books (Joel, Isaiah, Habakkuk, \&c.), for in the later (e. g. Ezekiel, Haggai, Zechariah) it scarcely differs from prose.

Parallelism is generally distinguished into three sorts, according to the relation in sense between the corresponding members, which relation may be synonymous, antithetic, or synthetic.

1: Symonymous Parallelism. In this the second member is more or less a repetition of the first. These examples may serve to illustrate the corre-spondence:-

Prov. vi. 2.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { : }
\end{aligned}
$$

Thou art snared in the words of thy mouth; Thou art taken in the words of thy mouth.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Job v. } 6 .
\end{aligned}
$$

For affliction comes not forth from the dust;
And trouble springs not forth from the ground.
Sometimes each member of the parallelism consists of two parts, so that we have four clauses, as in

Gen. iv. 23.*



[^178]
##  <br> 

Adah and Zillah，near my vorce，
Ye wives of Lamech，hearken to my speech；
For I have slain a man to my wounding，
And a youth to my hurt．
As another instructive example of this parallelism with four clauses we may adduce $\mathrm{Ps}_{\text {s．xix．}} 8$ ：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { חּוֹרַת יְהּוֹהּה תְּמִימָּה }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { צֵדוּת יְהוֹהּה בֵּמָּמָּה } \\
& \text { מַּחְִּּימַּת פֶּתִּ }
\end{aligned}
$$

The law of Jehovah is perfect，
Reviving the spirit；
The testimony of Jehovah is sure， Making wise the simple．
It may be remarked in general，that under this synonymous parallelism， which is the most frequent form of the Hebrew rhythm，we find an exceed－ ingly great variety of constructions．

2．Antithetic Parallelism．In this the idea $c^{f}$ the second member stands in opposition or contrast to that of the first．This construction is specially frequent in the book of Proverbs，where very many of the sentiments are thus illustrated or impressed by antithesis．E．g．Prov．x．1：

A wise son makes a glad father；
But a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother．
For other examples see Ps．i．6；cii．27， 28 ；cylvii．6；Is．i． 3.
3．Symthetic Purallelism．In this the idea of the first member is enforced not so much by repetition or antithesis in what follows，as by expansion and modification．E．g．Ps．xxvii．4：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 药 }
\end{aligned}
$$

the inflexions of nouns and verbs，so that they actually often appear aiso in the plainest prosé，e．g．Josh．xxiii．11：

> ロスּู
> : לֹאָּ

##  <br> 

One thing I ask from Jehovah,
It will I seek after,-
My dwelling in the house of Jehovah all the days of my life,
To behold the beauty of Jehovah,
And to inquire in his temple.


#### Abstract

** In most editions of the Hebrew Bible, the poetry is not given (as in the above examples) in lines according to the parallelism, but appears in the same form as the prose (except in Ex. xv., Dent. xxxii., Judges v., and 2 Sam. xxii.). The accents, however, serve to indicate the divisions or lines. Thus a simple parallelism is divided into two members by Athnach ( -n ) or Merka with Mahpakh $\left(\div^{*}\right)$; and in a compound one the subdivisions of the members are usually made by Zaqeph-quton $(-)$ and Rebhia $(-)$.


## 1. Part of the Song of Moses.

Deut. xxxii. 1-4.


1
2

3
4

צ"

## 2. Parable of the Degenerate Vineyard.

Isaiah v. 1-7.






v. 6 . הכ״ ברגם



:

## 3. Praise of a Good Wife.

Prov. xxxi. 10-31.



 16
 19
 22
 25





## N 0 TES.

## I. SCRIPTURE PHRASES AND SENTENCES.

N. B. For the derivation of Nouns, the Lexicon must be consulted; but this necessity can occasion no difficulty, even to the beginner, now that he can have Gesenius's with the words in alphabetical order.

1, Perí gho'-dhèl le-bha'bh.* Fruit-of greatness-of heart, i. e., buasting. $P^{6} r i{ }^{2}$ is a noun masc. sing. in the constr. state (see § 87), and belongs to class or Parad. VI. i. (§91) : the © has Daghesh lene (see § $6,3, \S 13,1, \S 21,1$ ). Ghódhèl, noun masc. sing. constr. st. Parad. VI. c.: the I without Daghesh lene $(\$ 6,3)$ because preceded by a word ending with a vowel and closely connected (see § 21, 1, at the end). Lēbhábh, noun masc. sing. absol. st. (see \$87, 1, at the close), Parad. IV. a.-This example shows a) that the relation of the genitive case, or what is called the constr. state in Hebrew, is indicated essentially by mere closeness of connexion between words as uttered, for there is no change whatever in the form of $p^{e} r i$ and ghodhel, though each is in constr. state (see $\S 87,1$, and Note $\dagger$ ); $b$ ) that there may be several successive nouns in the constr; state depending on each other (see § 112, 1): see also below in No.3.-The sign (:) at the end is Soph-pasaq, which is always preceded by the accent Silluq (\$15).
2. Debhắr hăm-mä'-lěkh hăg-ga-dhót: Word-of the great king. Debhăr, noun m. sing. constr. st. of 7 , ֶֶָ, Parad. IV. Here notice how the close connexion in utterance, or the constr. state, occasions a change of the vowels (see §87, 1).-Hămmálëkh, noun mi king. absol. st. Paràd. VI. a; with the article (끄) prefixed (see § 35). Hăggadhól, adj. m. sing. with article; on $\ddagger$ with Dagh. forte see § 13, 3.-Observe how the adj. stands after the noun, and agrees with it in gender and number (see § 110,1) and in taking the art. (see \$ 109, 2).
3. $\mathbf{Y}^{\mathbf{m}} \mathrm{mé}$ shené chăy-yế abho-thā'i. The days-of the years-of the life-of my fathers. Yemế, noun m. pl. constr. st.; the sing. ain, irregularly inflected

[^179] here with masc. plural (see § 86, 4). Chăyyế, noun m. pl. constr. st. ; sing.
 noun m. pl. (but. with fem. form ( $\$ 86,4$ ), with suff. 1 pers. sing. ( ${ }^{7}-$ for ${ }^{4}$ because of pause Silluq, §29, 4, a) ; sing. בָw, irreg. inflexion (§94).-Observe here the succession of three nouns in the constr. st. ( $\$ 112,1$ ), and the effect of the close connexion in utterance not only changing the vowels (as in No. 2) but also eliding or slurring over the consonant D ( according to $\S 87,2, a$ ).-Observe also the absence of the art. before the nouns, owing to their being in the constr. st., and as such not needing the art. (see § 108, 2); comp. our expression God's word for the word of God (see Note, p. 213).
4. Zē̈-khèr tsăd-díqq lĭbh-rä-khã.. The memory-of a righteous (man) for a blessing, i. e. is blessed. Zếkhěr, Parad. VI. b; art. omitted (§ 108, 2); constr. st. without any change (see above No. 1). T'sădd $\overparen{\imath} q$, adj. m. sing., agreeing with צדָּ man, which is understood. Libhrakhá, noun f.sing., absol. st., Parad. B, c; with prep. \} to prefixed ( $(100,2)$, here with short Chireq (?) according to $\S 28,1$.-Observe the ellipsis of the copula (i. e., the verb to be), according to § 141.
5. Ăt-tãa' Yehō-vá tơbh vesăl-lách. Thou, Jehovah, (art) good and forgiving. Ăttá, pron. personal or separate, 2 pers. sing. masc. (see § 32). $\boldsymbol{Y}^{\epsilon} h \bar{\sigma} v \bar{a}^{\prime}$, pr. n.; for the signification and the pronunciation of this word, see
 with conj. "and prefixed (§ 102, 2).-Obs. ellipsis of copula (art) according to § 141.
 verb 2 p. sing. m. fut. Kal; root ${ }^{2} \underset{\sim}{2} F_{F}$, Parad. B. I; the with Mappiq (§ 14) and Pattarh furtive (see §8, 2). - Rasha' (on omission of $\ddagger$, see p. 35), adj. m. sing. agreeing with omitted in poetic style (see p. 211.-Observe the arrangement of the words (§ 142,1 ).
7. Mİ yĭsh-kón behă'r qŏdı-shē'-khă. : Who shall dwell' in the mountainof thy holiness, i. e. in thy holy mount? Mi, pron. interrog. (§37) used of persons. Yïshkón, r. $\ddagger$ ָׁw i, Parad. B. Behärr, noun m. sing. constr. st. Parad. VIII. a; pl.
 joined by means of $(\bar{\eta})$ because of the pause $\operatorname{Silluk}(\$ 29,4, b)$.-Obs. subst. used to express adj. (see $\$ 104,1$ ); and for the position of the suff. $\overbrace{-}$, see \$ 119, 6.
8. Kā-bhē'dh hă-ră-ă'b bā-ă'-rěts. Heavy was the famine in the land. Tּำ, verb 3 p. sing. masc. pret. Kal (see Parad. B), agreeing in gend., numb., and pers. with its nominative ( $\$ 143$ at beginning), חָּרָּ
 with Qamets, because it displaces the art. and takes its pointing ( $\stackrel{7}{7}$ for $\underset{\sim}{7}$, see $\S 100,2, b$, and $\S 23,5$ ); see also $\S 29,4, a, \S 91$, Rem, 1, for the ( - ) instead of $(-)$ under $\kappa$.-The arrangement is the same as in No. 6.
9. Ăy-yé só-phē'r ěth-hăm-mĭgh-dă-İ'm. Where (is one) counting the
towers? Söphēr, act. part. m. sing. Kal; r. definite accusative (see § 115, 2, and Note), here followed by Maqqeph ( $\$ 16$, 1), and hence with ( - ) shortened to $(-)$, see $\& 27,1$. . absol. st., Parad. II., with art. prefixed ( $\$ 35$ ); in accus. case, governed by sophër (see § 132 and § 135).
10. Tsë́-dhēq mĭsh-shâ-mă'-yīm nīsh-qáph. Righteousness from heaven
 2), with prep. prefixed ( $\$ 100,1$ ); on plur. form in this noun see $\S 106,2$.
 $(-)$ because of the Silluq $(\$ 29,4)$.-Ohs. the proper sense of this verb in Niph. is reflexive, viz. to bend one's self forward (see §50, 2, and the Lexicon under $n$ TuT).
11. The iniquity of his fathers shall be remembered. าทีּ (yizz-zã-khér) verb (r. §50, 2, d) ; Parad. B. $\quad$ ( ${ }^{a}$ vón n, not "on, because the cholem requires a consonant before it, which must be the 4 , and not the $\$$ which has the Cha-teph-Pattach, see $\$ 26,1$ ) noun in constr. state (Parad. III.), governing the
 compare on No. 3; there scriptio plena, here scriptio defectiva ( $\$ 8,4$ ).The arrangement is according to $\S 142,1, a$.
12. Who hath tried the Spirit of Jehovah ? מִי (see § 37, 1). (thīk$k e ́ n, n$ without Daghesh lene because the prec. word ends with a vowel, and
 force ( $\$ 51,2, a$ ), Parad. B. -אֶת sign of accus. here before a noun made definite by the constr. st. (see on No. 9). 卫ַור ( $r \bar{a}^{a} c h$, with Pattach furtive, § $22,2, b$ ), noun in constr. st. (Parad. I).
13. Honour thy father and thy mother. פַּבּּ , verb (r. פָּ , see on No. 8) 2 p. sing. m. imper. of Piël (here causative of Kal, §51, 2, b), agreeing with הֵַּ thou (see No. 5) understood ; Parad. B. - צֵּ (twice) before a noun made
 $\S 94,2$ ) with suff. 2 p. sing. masc. ( $(89,1$, Rem. 1). y copulative conj. prefixed with $S h^{e} v a(\$ 102,2)$. suffix, here appended by Seghol instead of $S h^{e} v a$ on account of the pause accent Silluq (see § $29,4, b$ ).
14. His blood from thy hand will I require. קִּקָ (miy-ya-dhekha', 2nd syllable with Methegh $(\$ 16,2)$ to show that the vowel-sign - stands for a not $\delta$, see $\$ 9,12$, Rem. 1, $a$ ) noun f. sing. ( 7 , Parad. II.) with prep.
 ment see § 142,1, c.
15. I was stolen from the land of the Hebrews. B.) 1 sing. com. pret. of Pual (the passive of Piël, § 51, 2). », prep. (号) prefixed according to § 100,1 . 7
16. He has made heavy my chain. (causative of Kal, §52, 2); r. כָּ. Nechŏsh-tī̃ (


noun，Parad．VI．（here with - on account of the pause accent，$\S 29,4, a$ ，and § 27, Rem．2，c）．
 pael（with reflexive force，and here with transposition of $n$ ，see $\S 53,2, a$ ，and 3）；r．

19．And now let your hands be strong（lit．shall be strong）．． che $z \check{a}^{\prime} q-n a, m$ has Dagh．lene because a distinctive accent，$P^{e}$ siq（I），precedes， （ $\S 21,1$ ）， 3 p．pl．f．fut．Kal，r．
 with suff． 2 p ．pl．masc．－On the use of a plur．verb with a dual noun，see § $143,5$.

20．The generation of the upright shall be blessed．רim，noun constr．st． Parad．I．רישׁׁר
 of Silluq），agreeing in gend．，numb．，and pers．with the subject．

 Guttural，Parad．F）． piq and Pattach furtive，because it ceases to be final，$\S 22,2, b$ ）：on the plur． use of this word（plur．excellentia）see § 106，2，b．工绿，noun，Parad．IV．e， with suff． 2 p ．sing．fem．

22．A wise son will gladden his father．On position and agreement of adj． and subst．see No．2．

23．Jehovah will keep thee from all evil（lit．all of evil）．隻，（yish－ mör ${ }^{6}$－khá，§ 9，12，1，a；§ 10，1，at end ；§ 21，2，c） 3 p．sing．m．fut．Kal，with suff． 2 p．sing．masc．，see Parad．C，and §59．לֹ（here ${ }^{-3}$ כָ koll，because fol－ lowed by Maqqeph，which takes away the tone of the word and so makes a closed unaccented syllable，which cannot have a long vowel，see § 26,5 ）， prop．a noun（but commonly rendered as an adj．）in constr．st．，Pärad．VIII．c． צา，with - for－according to § 29，4，$a$ ．
 E）， 2 p．sing．in．imper．Hiphil，with suff． 1 p．sing．com．，seee Parad．C，and
 with－according to $\S 100,2, a$ ）and with suff． 2 pers．sing．masc．

25．When you hear（lit．according to your hearing）the voice of the trumpet．
 and suff． 2 p．pl．masc．，see $\S 60,1$ ，and $\S 64,2$ ．－On the use of $\ddagger$ before infi－ nitive，see § 129， 2.

26．This（has been）thy way from thy youth，for thou hast not hearkened to my voice． 2 p．sing．fem．
 （as in No．25）it means simply to hear＝perceive sound．

27．They encompassed me like bees，they were extinguished like fire of thorns．

28．The door will turn on its hinge，and a sluggard on his bed．＝i๋n，

## NOTES．




29．Then they began（lit．it was begun）to call on the name of Jehovah．
 Dagh．lene because of the distinctive accent（Tiphcha - ）under the preced－ ing word，§ 21， 1.

30．Ps．cxix．69．See on No．23．צָ， 1 p．sing．com．fut．Kal of （verb 泊，Parad．H）．

31．Gen．xiv．21．泡， 2 p．sing．m．imper．Kal of ？

 partly after Parad．F；see $\S 65$, Rem．2）．$\Pi_{1 \%}$ for $\eta_{1}^{2}$ on account of pause， § 101，2，$a$ ．

32．Judges xiii．16． with suff． 1 p ．sing．com．（§59）．On the position of the negative，see § 142， 1.
 with－instead of - on account of the conjunctive accent Munach $(-)$ ，§67， 1．See on No． 7.

33．Jer．xxvii．14．
 \＄ $29,4,6$ ．

34．Job xiv．1．
 see § 110，2．Conjunction ！prefixed with Shureq，before simple $\mathrm{Sh}^{\mathrm{e} v a}$ ， according to § $102,2, b$ ．

 or ancient case－ending for the accusative，$\$ 88,2$ ：so also in last word．yַ＂ņ， part．sing．m．Hiphil of $\Sigma_{\Sigma}$（after Parads． H and F）．

36．Is．xxxvii．23．nem，Piêl，Parad．E．On next word the accent $(-)$
 Dagh．forte conjunctive，$\S 20,2, a$ ．
 1）and prep．$\unrhd(\$ 100,1)$ ．אצָ
 with He interrog，prefixed according to $\S 98,4$（see its use in § 150，2）：this inf．stands before the finite verb to make it emphatic，according to § $128,3, a$ ， תּת בּיחת（Parad．VI．h）．
 prep．$\}$ prefixed according to $\$ 100,2, c$ ，and § 139,2 ． G）inflected here as regular（after Parad．B，see § 66，Rem．10，also § $29,4, b$ ）．
花（Parad．K）from
 （Parad．A）with suff．appended（ $\$ 89$ ）and conj． 9 prefixed with Shureq before
 No． 31

42．Jer．xliii．9． c）plur．（ of the next word in the masc． ． imper．according to § $124,6, c$ ．

43．Ps，civ．24．מָּ prop．interrog．pron．but here an adverb of interrog． lit．as to what？then how？see § 98，2，e，and Lex．sub voce）．． pret．for present according to §124，3．Under and the accent Athnach－（§ 15）．אֶּ § $135,3, b$ ．．רָּאָּרָּ，always so for art．（§ 35,1 and $\S 91$, Rem．1）．

44．Judges xiv．18．See § 37,1 ，Rem．for מַּ מֶּ （Parad．VI．，§ 91，Rem．4）with prep．${ }^{\prime}$（ $(\$ 100,1$ ），which here denotes the comparative（see § 117，1）．

45．Gen．ix．20．． ． with Vav conversive（see §48，2）giving to the fut．the sense of the pret．（see § 126 b）．ָּ
 끄ํ（see §74，Rem．15，and §48，5）．Conj．！with Pattach according to § 28， 2.

47．Ex．xxi．12．מַַַּּ part．Hiphil（r．נָּ ，Parads．H and P）in constr． st．according to § 132，1．． 1，e），pret．Kal．of מ⿰⿱⺈⿵⺆⿻二丨⿱刀⿰㇒⿻二丨冂刂（Parad．M，§71，Rem．1）with according to §102， 1，d．תim inf．absol．put for emphasis（ $(128,3, a)$ before 3 p．sing．m． fut．Hophal．
 bכxix（see on No．32）Fut．with Vav conv．（ 948,2 ）：obs．distinction between Methegh and Silluq，according to Note on p． 54.

49． 1 Kings v．8．אx sign of def．accusative in its separate or absol．form （§ 115，2）．． （§ 121，2）．

50．Lev．xx．14． for צָּ §n with suffixes（ $\$ 101$, Rem．1）．访 fem．suff． 3 p．plur．

51．Judges ix．10．${ }^{\text {？}}$ 2 p．sing．fem．imper．Kal of

 for the absence of Dagh．l．in $\mathbf{~}$ ，see $\S 21,2, a$ ．See § 101， 3.

52．Jer．xliv．25．פָׁט（ $a$－só，$\S 8,2$, Rem．）inf．absol．for emphasis（see on No．38）．（ $\left.n \bar{a}-d h \bar{a}^{\prime} r-n \bar{u}\right) 1$ pl．pret．Kal，with - for $=$ on account of Silluq．

53．Amos ii．10．See § 134，Rem．2．
54．Deut．xvi．19． press prohibilion（see § 125，3，c）．．
 rad．VI．h）．

55．Ts．xxxvit．10． c）：distinction between $\mathfrak{3}$ and $\mathcal{K}\}$ ，see in $\$ 149$ ，Rem． （see on No．48）with suff．according to §64，2，Rem．＂אלחֶ＂，＂see on No．21，
 2, $a$.
56. Ex. xvii. 2. See on No. 31. - ${ }^{\text {n'p }}$ dual in appearance but plur. in fact
 that, § 126, 1, c.
 prep. with suff. (see $\S 89,1$, Rem. 2).
 suff. 3 p . sing.-On the arrangement of this sentence, see $\S 142,2$.
59. 2 Kings x. 32. .בַּמִּים (compare vulgar Eng. in them days),



61. Prov. vi. 6.
62. 2 Chron. xi. 4.
 Hiphil fut. apoc. (for
 accent Tiphcha (§ 15). See § 118, 5.
64. Job xl. 4.

65. Mal. ii. 10. Ellipsis, § 141. \}i (Parad. VIII. c) with suff. (§ 89, 1, Rem. 2). Expression for reciprocal pronoun, § 122, Rem. 4. 3 敨 constr. Piêl, see § 66, Rem. 10.
66. Lev. xii. 4. On the construction of the numerals see $\S 118,1$ and 3. Z תֵּ
 and § 14,1 ), , לַּ (Parad. VI. f) with suff. 3 p . sing. fem., distinguished by the Mappiq from the ending of the fem. noun (

## II. EXTRACTS IN PROSE.

## 1. The Priests' Benediction.

 Num. vi. 22-26.V. 22. Vav. conv. prefixed without Daghesh forte ( $\$ 48 \mathrm{~b}, 2$, and $\S 20,3, b$, Rem.) (Dagh. f. conjunctive, § $20,2, a$ ), inf. with prep. (lit. to say) for רֹאֶn, according to § 23,2 , and § 67, 1, Rem.
 fut. or imper. according to $\$ 128,4, b$.
 (r. ${ }^{\eta}{ }^{2}$ חָ, Parad. G) 3 p. sing. m. fut. Kal with suff. with Nun epenthetic ( $\$ 57,4$ ), and prefixed according to § 102, 2, c.
${ }^{*}{ }^{*}{ }^{*}$ In reading these Extracts, it may be well to learn more of the names and uses of the Accents (§ 15).

## 2. Jotham's Parable.

Judges ix. 6-15.

V. 7.
V. 3. See § $128,3, a$.-Obs. gim, where a different form of the word is given (see § 17). Both the $K^{e}$ thibh
 imper. Kal with He paragogic $(\$ 48,5)$. This $K^{e} t h i b h$ form of the imper. is not recognised in the grammars, but it occurs also in Ps. xxvi. 2: comp. verse 12 below.
V. 9. ${ }^{\text {M }}$ pret. Kal (the Chateph-Qamets irreg. for Qamets, with He

 § 48,3 and $\S 124,6, a$ ). Эָ Th (inf. with prep.) to wave.
V. 10. See on No. 51 above.
 because its noun has a suff. (see $\S 109,2$ and $\S 110,1$ ).
V. 12. Kethibh מֶּלוֹבִי but Qeri
 to our relative pron. with the indicative, which cheers.


## 3. Elijah's Ascension.

2 Kings ii. 1-12.
V. 1. יַּיְהִ fut. apoc. ( $\$ 74$, Rem. 3, e) with Vav conv. ( $\$ 48,2$ ) used for tense of narration ( $\$ 126 \mathrm{~b}, 2$ ). פָּדָ (see § § 130,3 ). (
 Chateph-Qamets.-See all these marginal notices explained at the end of Tauchnitz's editions of the Hebrew Bible, which are the best and cheapest.
V. 2. and the life of thy soui) as Jehovah liveth and by the life of thy soul, a form of oath: in next verse) in the adverbial accusative, $\S 116,1$.
V. 3. 日in prop. the day = this day, see § 107, at begin. excellentice ( $(107,2, b)$. .
V. 5.

[^180]V. 6. Rem. 2.
V. 7. Construction of the numeral, § $118,2$.
 above on No. 63. $\quad$ conj. with Qamets, see above on No. 47. $\frac{7}{y}$ prep. with art. ( $\oint 35,2, \mathrm{~B}, b$ and Rem. 2).
 \%and =that after be, pray, a portion of two in thy spirit to me, i. e. may.I have a double portion (twice as much as any one else) of thy spirit: $\pi \stackrel{\pi}{8}$, see $\S 94$.
 a hard thing, see § 139, 4, Rem. 1. Mpric for חprpa see § 51, Rem. 5.
V. 11. Lit. and it was, they walking to walk and to speak, that lo! a chariot, \&c.: see § 131, 2, a or c, and § $128,3, b$. לצֵּ adverbial accus. ( $\$ 116,1$ ).
 Israel's chariot and his horsemen.-Obs. that in Hebrew two or more nouns cannot be in the construct state before the same genitive (see Note $\ddagger$ on § 112,
 hence the language required either the expression of the genitive after each noun ( 3 ֵּ of the possessive pron. after the second noun (as exhibited in this verse), or the periphrastic construction (see § 113) which expresses the genitive in the way of the dative (הִרְּ Israel).

## III. EXTRACTS IN POETRY.

## 1. Part of the Song of Moses.

Deut. xxiii. 1-4.
** In this extract the parallel members are clearly exhibited in separate lines.



V. 3. הּ the rack, i. e. Jehovah, case absol. (§ 142, 2).-Large $\pm$ (so the marginal notice calls it) to mark out the word as having a peculiar use or mystic sense attached to it by the Masoretic authors (see $\S 3,2$ ).

[^181]
## 2. Parable of the Degenerate Vineyard.

Isaiah v. 1-7.

V. 2. בֶּ with double accus. (§ 136, 2). . Rem. 9.
 (§ 143,1 ).
V. 4. See § 129, Rem. 1, 2.

V: 5. יָּ with two accus. ( $\oint 136,1$ ). part. for fut. ( $(\$ 131,2, b)$. ר Tָּ and
 (§ 135., 1, Rem. 2). מַחֵּpuּ lit. from to rain (§ 129, 2).
V. 7. Observe the striking paronomasia or alliteration between
 tion, thus,-he looked for right, and behold might! for weal, and behold wooe!

## 3. Praise of a Good Wife.

Prov. xxxi. 10-31.
*** This piece is Alphabetical, a sort of Hebrew Acrostic (\$ 5, Rem. 2).

V. 11. Pret. for present ( $\S 124,3$ ).
V. 12. ( 4 . $58,1, a$ and Rem. 3).
V. 14. תin
V. 15. 7is tinuing of, § 129, 2), while it is yet night. Fut. with Vav conv. for present (§ $126,3, a$ ).
 $K^{\text {Clhibh}}$ either צָּ agreeing with $\begin{gathered}\text { an } \\ \text { ֶ่ as subject. }\end{gathered}$
V. 18. Sense of $Q^{e} r i$ and $K^{e} t h i b h$ is here the same.


V. 27. הִּ nimern ; the latter probably derived from \#n int but the former from
V. 29. תiּine, adj. put before the noun either for emphasis, many women \&c. (see § 110,1, Rem. 1), or as predicate (many are the women who, \&c. (see § 142, 1, b). .
V. 30. case absol. ( $\$ 142,2$ ). Observe, the crowning praise of a good wife is the fear of the Lord or piety. See $\$ 53$, Rem. at the end.


## SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

## § 123.

USE OF THE TENSES; GENERAL VIEW.

1. From the poverty of the Hebrew language in the means of expressing the absolute and relative circumstances of time ( $\$ \S 40$ and 48 ), we might naturally expect some variety in the uses of the same form, especially as in some cases (where the relation of time has little or no influence) both tenses are employed with equal propriety.
2. We are not to infer from this, however, that there was scarcely any well defined and established use of the two tenses of the Hebrew verb. On the contrary accurate observation shows, that the idea of the past, and of those relations of time and mood which stand connected with it, predominates in the one, and in the other that of the future and of the kindred relations of the subjunctive and optative moods.* It is only in certain clearly defined cases that they coincide; in all others they are essentially distinct.

It is a partial and false view, which regards the so called Prxter and Future not as tenses, but as designed originally to express distinctions of mood (Indicative and Subjunctive) rather than relations of time.

As examples of the Præter and Future used expressly to denote
 I havc done it, and I will (still) bear (you); and vs. 11, ףִ
 I have purposed and will accomplish it.

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 Lan Min





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[^0]:    * The translation appeared in 1839 , and an accurate reprint of it was soon after published in London.

[^1]:    * Even in Numidia the Phœnician language has been found in inscriptions on monuments and coins (see Gesenius's Paldographische Studien, s. 67 ff . and Monumenta Phcenicia, p. 182, \&c.); but we may question whether it ever ob. tained much currency among the Numidian population.
    $\dagger$ From Shem were derived (Gen. x. 21, \&cc.) the Aramæan and Arabian races as well as the Hebrew, but not the Æthiopians and Canaanites (Phœnicians). who are derived from Ham (vs. 6, 15, \&cc.) : on the contrary, among the Shemites are put (v. 22) also the Elamites and Assyrians, whose language was not of the class now called Shemitish.

[^2]:    ＊The most ancient passage，where Aramæan words as such occur，is Gen．
    xxxi．47．Comp．also the Aramæan verse in Jer．x． 11.
    $\dagger$ So called from צ゙ゴ B．I．，S．646．－Tr．
    $\ddagger$ See Rodiger in der Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes，B．II．，S． 77 ff．
    § See Gesenius in d．Allg．Lit．Zeitung，1839，No．7\％ff．，1841，No．40．Th．

[^3]:    * See Rödiger in d. Zeitschrift f. d. Kunde des Morgenlandes, Bd. II. S. 332, \&cc., and his Notes to Wellsted's Reisen in Arabien (Halle, 184*), II., 376, \&c.

[^4]:    * and of those who dwelt at the foot of Lebanon and on the Syrian coast, whom we call Phœnicians, while they are called $j$ j: $=$ on their own coins. Also the people of Carthage gave themselves the same name.

[^5]:    ＊For an able defence of the genuineness of the latter part of Isaiah，see Hengstenberg＇s Christology of the Old Test．，vol．i．，p． 398 foll，of Keith＇s trans－ lation，or in American Bib．Repository，vol．i．，p．700，\＆c．；also Havernick＇s Einleitung ins Alte Testament，§§ 217－220．That of the Pentateuch has also been successfully vindicated by many distinguished critics．See a valuable arti－ cle on the subject in the American Bibliotheca Sacrà，vol．ii．，No．6．－Tr．
    $\dagger$ That in Isaiah＇s time（ 2 d half of the 8 th century before Christ）the more educated Hebrews，at least the officers of state，understood Aramæan is expressly mentioned in 2 Kings xviii．26；comp．Is．xxxvi． 11.

[^6]:    * Translated in the Biblical Repository, No. IX.-Tr.

[^7]:    * See a defence of the earlier date and the genuineness of Jonah in Hävernick's Einleitung ins A. Test., §§ 242-247.-Ta.

[^8]:    * On the origin and earliest history of Hebrew lexicography, see the preface of Gesenius to the 4th edition of his Heb. Handwòrterbuch. On the first grammarians, see also Sam. David Luzzatto's Prolegomeni ad una gramm. ragionata della lingua ebraica (Padova, 1836), p. 26 foll.

[^9]:    * For the sounds of the consonants and vowels in this table, see $\S 6$ and note on § 8. - Tr.

[^10]:    －See the alphabets of these various forms in Gesenii Monumenta Phcenicia， abb．1－5．
    $\dagger$ These letters are supplied with vowels and pronounced together，thus $\uparrow$ ץ习习习 Such voces memoriales were invented by the early Hebrew Grammarians to assist in remembering certain classes of letters．

[^11]:    * See the works of Young, Champollion, and others on the Hieroglyphics. Lepsius exhibits the chief results in his Lettre à Mr. Rosellini sur l'alphabet hiéroglyphique. Rom. 1837. 8vo. Comp. Gesenius in der Allgem. Litt. Zeitung, 1839. No. 77-81. Hitzig, die Erfindung des Alphabets. Zürich, 1840, fol. J. Olshausen über den Ursprung des Alphabets. Kiel, 1841. 8vo.

[^12]:    * Important aid may also be derived from an accurate physiological observation of the whole system of sounds, and of their formation by the organs of speech. See on this subject Liskovius's Thcorie der Stimme, Leipzig, 1814, J. Müller's Handbuch der Physiologie, Bd. II. S. 179, \&c., also Strodtmann's Anatomische Vorhalle zur Physiologie der Stimme und der Sprachlaute, Altona, 1837. In its reference to grammar, see H. Hupfeld in Jahn's Jahrbücher f. Philologie, 1829, H. 4, and H. E. Bindseil's Abhandlungen zur allgem. vergleichenden Sprachlehre (Hamb., 1838). I. Physiologie der Stimm- und Sprachlaute, S. 1, \&c.

[^13]:    * In the Arabic language, the peculiarities of which have been carefully noted by the grammarians, the hard and soft sounds of $z$ and $\pi$ (as well as the different pronunciations of $\urcorner, \beth, ษ$ ), are indicated by diacritic points. Two letters are thus made from each : from $\Sigma$ the softer $\varepsilon$ Ain, and the harder $\dot{\varepsilon}$ Ghain. from $\pi$ the softer $\subset$ Hha, and the harder $\dot{\boldsymbol{\tau}}$ Kha.
    $\dagger$ Sound $n$ as $t, \pi$ as $t h$ in thick; 7 as $d, 7 d h$ as $t h$ in that ; as $p, ~ घ$

[^14]:    ph or $f$ ；a as $b$ ，$\quad b$ as $v$ ；and 2 both as $g$ in $g o$ ；and $\supset$ both as $k$ ．If one wishes to give the aspirated sound of $\Sigma$ and $\Sigma$ ，let him pronounce $g$ and $k$ ，rolling the palate with the same breath．－Tr．

[^15]:    * For the sound of these vowels, see note on § 8.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ So in Sanscrit, the ancient Persian cuneiform writing, and Ethiopic, short $a$ alone of all the vowels is not indicated by any sign, but the simple consonant is pronounced with this vowel.

[^16]:    - The close connexion between $\pi, \mathbb{K}$, and the $A$-sound. 1 and the U-sound, F and the I-sound, admits of easy physiological explanation, if we attend to the formation of these sounds by the organs of speech. The vowel A is formed by opening the mouth without changing the position of the organs; so also $i \rightarrow$ and $\aleph . \quad \mathrm{U}$ is sounded in the fore part of the mouth, with the lips a little projecting and rounded; so also " [our $w$ ]. And I is formed at the fore part of the palate; so also " [our $y$ ]. E sounds at the back of the palate, between $i$ and $a ; 0$ in the under part of the mouth, between $u$ and $a$.
    $\dagger$ The Phœenicians did not indicate even the long vowels, except in most rare cases, and their oldest monuments have scarcely any vowel-signs. See Mon. Phœenicia, pp. 57, 58; and above § 2.2.

[^17]:    * The vowels as represented in this translation are supposed to be sounded as follows:- $\bar{a}$ or $\hat{a}$ like $a$ in father; $\check{a}$ like $a$ in fat; $\ddot{a}$ like $a$ in fate; $\bar{e}$ or $\hat{e}$ like $e$ in there; $\ddot{e}$ like $e$ in err ; $\bar{\imath}$ like $i$ in pique; $\breve{\iota}$ like $i$ in pick; $\bar{o}$ or $\hat{o}$ like $o$ in no; ŏ like o in not; $\bar{u}$ like $u$ in rule; $\breve{u}$ like $u$ in full.-Tr.

[^18]:    * The Jewish grammarians call Seghol also "small Pattach."
    $\dagger$ It has been conjectured that the signs for these vowels were originally different (as : $\bar{a}, r \check{o}$ ) and hecame identical only through carelessness in writing; but such a difference cannot be proved, for these two marks are quite identical, the former ( $(\square)$ being only the original, and the second $(T)$ the modified form.

[^19]:    * The same historical relation may be shown in the Phœnician and Arabic, -in the latter especially by means of the older Koran MSS. and the writing on coins.
    $\dagger$ The $y$ in this case should be sounded as much as possible like $y$ in $y e t$, not as in nay.-Tr.

[^20]:    * See § 25.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ When the tone is marked in this book, the sign $二$ is put over the first let ter of the syllable, see § $15, \mathrm{I}, 3 .-\mathrm{Tr}$.

[^21]:    

[^22]:    * This portion must, in order to be fully understood, be studied in connexion with what is said on the syllables in § 26, and on Methegh in § 16, 2. [In

[^23]:    the original it is all printed in small type, but its importance justifies the change we have made.]

    - For the cause of this see p. 40.
    $\dagger$ But not always, where it ought to be, e. g. Ps. xvi. 5; lv. 19, 22.
    $\ddagger$ That ${ }_{T}$ ought here to be considered and divided as an open syllable tive appears from § 26,7 .
    § This case is connected with the foregoing, so far as the second Qamets-chatuph is sprung from Chateph-Qamets.

[^24]:    * In the table § 9,12 the half-vowels have already been exhibited for the sake of a completer view.
    $\dagger$ The name שְֶׁut is best explained as equivalent to nothrngness, emptiness. The vowel points in this word are transposed in order to have foremost the sign ( - ) indicated by the term, according to a principle followed also in the names of vowels. (See §8,1).
    

[^25]:    gubulim (see Mon. Phœnicia, p. 436) ; it is found also in the Latin augments momordi, pupugi, compare the Greek in $\tau \dot{\varepsilon} \tau v \emptyset \alpha, \tau \varepsilon \tau \dot{v} \mu \mu \varepsilon \varepsilon_{0} \rho$ and the old form memordi.

    - See especially Juda Chayitg in Ibn Ezra's Tsachoth, p. 3; Gesenius's Lehrgebäude der heb. Sprache. S. 68.

[^26]:    * So thought Juda Chayig among the Jewish grammarians.
    $\dagger$ Daghesh in 7 is easily distinguished from Shureq, which never admits a vowel or Sheva under or before the 9. The Vav with Daghesh (9) ought to have the point not so high up as the Vav with Shureq (4). But this difference is often neglected in typography.

[^27]:    * These accents are marked in the following list with an asterisk.

[^28]:    * This has the same form with Methegh (§ 16,2 ), but they are readily distinguished, as Silluq always stands on the last tone-syllable of a verse, while Methegh never stands on the tone-syllable.

[^29]:    * See the first article on each letter in Gesenius's Hebrew Lexicon,

[^30]:    * In the Punic, $ך^{7}$ malkh (king) is in this way contracted to $m 6 k h$, see Mon. Phcenicia, p. 431.

[^31]:    * Here belong such cases as not correct, that the first of the two words must be a monosyllable, or accented on the penultima.

[^32]:    * This distinction may be illustrated by the English words small compared with swan, and boon compared with book.-Tr.
    + The doubling of a final letter is also omitted in Latin, as fel (for fell) gen. fellis, mel gen. mellis; ancient German val (Fall) gen. valles.

[^33]:    ＊Thus in Greek $\varphi$ and $\chi$ were not at first included in the alphabet，and only the modern Greeks aspirate the letters $\beta, \gamma, \delta$ ．

[^34]:    * A particularly instructíve case occurs in § 45, 3.
    $\dagger$ Comp. terra and the French terre; the Germ. Rolle and the French rôle,

[^35]:    * The preference of $r$ for the vowel $a$ is seen also in Greek, e. g. in the
    

[^36]:     which are compounded of two words, and in many MSS, are also written in two separate words. One other case, text divided by Maqqeph, in order to bring the quiescent $n$ at the end of a word

[^37]:    ＊Instances in which no contraction takes place after a short $a$ are 1 Chron．xii．2；אריםחרצ Hos．vii．12；Job iii．26．At times both forms
    
    

[^38]:    * The Arab writes in this case, etymologically, ${ }^{2}$ 2a, but speaks gala. So the
    
    $\dagger$ When any addition is made, at the end, to these forms in $\dagger-$, the original ־- is frequently restored. See § 91, 9, Rem.

[^39]:    * It may be questioned whether ${ }^{n}$ in the above position be a real exception; for taining its feeble consonant sound before the Shureq.-Tr.

[^40]:    * This is certainly a fundamental law in Hebrew, as its pronunciation is now indicated by the vowel-signs, but not a matter of absolute necessity, for other
     tălă. At an earlier period the Hebrew, like the Arabic, most probably had short vowels in those open syllables in which the vowel was not essentially long; and the present pronunciation is derived in part from the solemn, slow, and chanting way of reading the Old Testament in the synagogues.
    $\dagger$ The Arab has for this pretonic vowel constantly a short vowel : the Chaldæan only a vocal She ${ }^{e}$ va, in Hebrew, when the tone is shifted forward ( $\S 27,3, a$ ). But this pretonic vowel must not be regarded as if it had been adopted, perhaps in place of Sheva, on account of the tone on the following syllable; but it originally belongs to this place, and the circumstance of its standing before the tone-syllable only causes it to remain, whilst it is reduced to a vocal $S h^{e}$ va upon the shifting forward of the tone.

[^41]:    * There are some exceptions, when a word loses the tone through Maqqeph,
    
    $\dagger$ See § 9, 2. Short Chireq (i) occurs only in the particles and ạ, which, however, are mostly toneless because followed by Maqqeph.

[^42]:    * The vowel, which here disappears on the shifting of the tone forward, is the so-called pretonic vowel in an open syllable, concerning which see in § 9, 1, 2 and § 26,3 .

[^43]:    
    $\dagger$ Analogous to this attenuating of $\check{a}$ into $\check{\ddot{l}}$ is the Latin tango, attingo, laxus, prolixus; and to that of $\check{a}$ into $\check{e}$ (in Rem. 2) the Latin carpo, decerpo; epargo, conspergo.

[^44]:    * There is no instance of a similar use of $\lambda$ and $\emptyset$, which would in that case likewise require Daghesh. [But see Пopim in Prov. xxx. 6.]
     On account of the feeble sound of the $\mathbb{x}$ the helping-vowel may also be omitted, as
    $\ddagger$ In this and the analogous examples ( $\S 64,2$ ) Daghesh lene remains in the final Tav, just as if no vowel preceded (§22,2), in order to indicate that the helping Pattach has a very short sound, and at the same time to suggest $\underset{\sim}{\text { nfen }}$
     in pronunciation from $\cap$ חַק this helping-vowel, in connexion with the notion that such a vowel must be sounded before the consonant, caused the decided mistake which long had its defenders, namely, that $\underset{ְ}{\square}$ M

[^45]:    * Even the prose of the Hebrews proceeds, according to the accentuation, in a kind of Iambic rhythm. That the authors of the system intended to securs this object is evident, particularly from the application of Methegh.

[^46]:    Rem. 1. The Jewish grammarians call the stem-word, i.e. the third person singular of the preterite, the root, radix is often used; and hence the three consonants of the stem are called radical letters, in contradistinction from the servile letters [namely $\aleph, \Xi, \pi$,
     Ethan, Moses, and Caleb] which are added in the derivation and inflexion of words. We however employ the term root in a different sense, as explained here in No. 2.

[^47]:    ＊Letters which are not found associated as radicals are called incompatible．

[^48]:    * Comp. Hupfeld's System der semitischen Demonstrativbildung und der damit zusammenhãngenden Pronominal- und Partikelnbildung, in the Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, Bd. II. S. 124 ff. 427 ff.

[^49]:    * Among other proofs of the high antiquity of these words is the very striking coincidence between them and the pronouns of the ancient Egyptian language (by far the oldest in which we possess written monuments), see the com parison in Allg. Lit. Zeitung, 1839, No. 80.

[^50]:     what like anekh (Plauti Pcenulus, V. 2. 35., Gesenii Mon. Phœenicia, pp. 376, 437). A trace of this form is found in the Æthiopic qatalku ( $I$ have killed). In ancient Fgyptian ANK (pronounced anok).

[^51]:    ＊See an exception in § 119，2．

[^52]:    * With some adverbs we must translate the suffixes by the nominative, $\S 985$.
    $\dagger$ That a palatal $(k)$ and lingual $(t)$ are liable to be exchanged is manifest from the speech of young children, who frequently confound them. as likkie for little. Obvious instances of this exchange are found in many languages as Gr. $\delta(x i \omega)=火\left(x i(0)\right.$, Gr. $\tau i \xi=$ Eol. $x i \xi$, Lat. quis, and in the Hebrew itself $\pi T_{\Gamma} \underset{\sim}{\sim}=$ שָׁקָ to drink. There is thus a strong presumption that the pronoun of the second person in the Shemitish languages must have had two forms, one with $k$ and the other with $t$, as similar change, as Welsh $t i$ but Cornish chee (thou) and chwi (you).-Tr.

[^53]:    * In most languages the demonstratives begin with $d$, hence called the demonstrative sound, which is, however, interchanged with a sibilant [as in Heb.
    
     [our the, this, that; Welsh dyna; hyn, hyna], \&c.

[^54]:    * In the Phcenician it is always written $\Psi$, and pronounced sa, se, si. Monumm. Phœenicia, p. 438 Comp. above § 2,5. In modern Hebrew alsn •نֻ has become the predominant torm. $\dagger$ Gen. x. 26.

[^55]:    * This verb, on account of the guttural which it contains, is unsuitable for a Paradigm, and was accordingly exchanged for 7 . that all its conjugations are actually in use. There is, however, some indistinctness in the pronunciation of some of its forms, as digm $\mathcal{Z}_{-2}$, in common use since the time of Danz, obviates this inconvenience, and is especially adapted to the harmonic treatment of the Shemitish languages, inasmuch as it is found with a slight change (Arab. and Æthiop. 3-p) in all of them. In Hebrew, it is true, it has only the forms of Kal, which are not frequent, and occur only in poetry; yet it may be retained as a type or model sanctioned by usage.

[^56]:    In the Germanic languages also there are distinct forms for only two tenses (the present and imperfect). In the formation of all the others, auxiliary verbs are employed.
    2. In respect to their relation to one another, the forms of each conjugation may be embraced in two classes ( $(39,1$ ). The third person of the Preterite is the ground-form of one of these classes, which embraces, however, only the remaining forms of

[^57]:    * See note * to § 47.-Tr.

[^58]:    * The term defective, by which some designate this class, we apply to those whose forms are not all in use (§ 77).

[^59]:    * A verb middle $\mathcal{A}$ is one that has Pattach or Qamets under the middle radical or in the second syllable; a verb middle $E$, one that has Tsere; and a verb middle $O$, one that has Cholem.-Tr.

[^60]:    * On the intimate connexion between the Preterite and the verbal adjective, see what has been already said §39, 1. They often have the same form, as full, or he is full; †- small, or he is small.
    $\dagger$ Gesenius, on the contrary, maintained (and so does Ewald), that the afform-
     actually used for ${ }^{\text {n }}$ ".-Tr.
    $\ddagger$ See Bopp's Vergleichende Grammatik, § 439, \&c.
     with an asterisk as model-forms, for the notice of the beginner.

[^61]:    * Almost all these forms, which in Hebrew are unfrequent, are the usual ones in the kindred dialects, and may, with a proper understanding of the terms, be called Chaldaisms, Syriasms, and Arabisms.

[^62]:    * This relation is certainly similar to that which exists between the absolute and construct states in the noun (§ 87). There is a difference, however, both in form and use. The absolute is indeed mostly the longer form; but its vowels are often wholly different, as in Piel ening the construct; but the construct is not a shortened form of the absolute. The use of the Infin. constr. is by no means limited to the case where it is followed by a genitive. In the Paradigms the Inf. constr, as the predominant form is put before the other under the name of Infinitive $\left.\alpha \alpha \boldsymbol{\tau}^{3} \varepsilon^{\xi}\right)^{\prime} \chi \eta^{\prime} \nu$.

[^63]:    * Also the Inf. absol. is occasionally used, like the Greek Infinitive, for the Imperative ( $\$ 128,4, b$ ). But this is no ground for taking the Imperative to be properly an Infinitive; for the Inf. absol. stands also for a Present, Perfect and Future. It might rather be supposed, that the Imper. is a shortening of the 2 d person of the Fut. (קָ prom independent, and not sprung one from another, but standing all alike on the basis of the abstract verb ( $\S 39,1$ ). The inflexion of the Imper, may rather be borrowed from the Future, than the reverse.
    $\dagger$ An Imper. is found twice (Ez. xxxii. 19, Jer. xlix. 8) in Hophal, but with a reflexive meaning.

[^64]:    * In this translation the grammatical terms, used by Gesenius himself and by most other Hebraists, are generally retained, in preference to those adopted by Rödiger after the example of Ewald. A general change of the terminology would occasion inconvenience and some perplexity, particularly in using the best Hebrew Lexicons now extant, while it would scarcely secure advantages to counterbalance. Accordingly the tenses are, here, designated by the usual names. By Rödiger, however, the Future is called Imperfect, as expressing what is unfinished, in progress, and future; in contradistinction from the Perfect, which expresses what is actually finished and past. or conceived to be so (see in the Syntax, §§ 123-26b). It may be added that Prof. Lee calls the Future the Present tense. In this, however, he seems to stand alone.-Tr.
    $\dagger$ There is this striking difference in the formation of the two tenses, that the more objective Preterite begins with the verbal stem, and ends with the pronominal sign as something subordinate, while the Future, on the contrary, begins with the pronoun denoting the subject from whom the action of the verb proceeds. See more in the Syntax, $\S 123$, \&c.

[^65]:    ＊This is also the proper gender of the plural－syllable $\bar{u} n, \bar{u}$ ．It is true that in the Pret．the Hebrew employs it for both genders，but in the kindred tongues， it stands even in the $\backslash$ Pret．for the masculine alone；as in Syriac mas．qeetulūn， fem．qětalēn，so in Arabic，mas．qátalū，fem．qatálna．

[^66]:    * It is worthy of remark, that the Chronicles often omit the Nun where it stands in the books of Kings; see 1 Kings viii. 38, 43; comp. 2 Chron. vi. 29, 33. - 1 Kings xii. 24 ; 2 Kings xi. 5 ; comp. 2 Chron. xi. 4 ; xxiii. 4.

[^67]:    - Since it changes in a degree the menning of the tenses, it is called by the Hebrew grammarians [including Gesenius] Vav conversive (i. e. converting the Fut. into the Pret., and the Pret. into the Fut.). Better [in the opinion of Rödiger, who follows Ewald] is the name Vav consecutive, since it essentially denotes sequence or progress.
    $\dagger$ Also the forms in Judges viii. 1; Ez. xliv. 8.

[^68]:    * Whether the hastening of the tone forward expresses the reference to the future, and, on the contrary, the shifting of it backward, a close connexion with what is past, may be left undecided.
    $\dagger$ The Jewish grammarians call the participle also בֵּun (middle word); yct not in the sense of the Latin name, but as used for a present tense, and accordingly holding the middle place between the Preterite and the Future.

[^69]:    * In other languages, too, the change of the reflexive into the passive is observed. It is still clear in Sanskrit and in Greek how the middle goes before the passive voice ; the $r$ at the end of the Latin passive is the reflexive pronoun $=s e$; in the ancient Slavic and Bohemian amat-se stands for amatur, in Dacoromanic io me laudu (I am praised). See Pott's Etymologische Forschungen, Th. 1, S. 133 ff. Th. 2. S. 92. Bopp's Vergleichende Grammatik, S. 686 ff.

[^70]:    * Analogous examples, in which the doubling of a letter has an intensive force, are found in the German words reichen, recken; streichen (stringo, Anglo-Saxon strecan), strecken; comp. Strich, Strecke; Wacker, from wachen: others in which it has the causative significatior, are stechen, stecken; wachen, wecken; in Greek, т $\varepsilon \lambda \lambda \omega$ to bring to an end, from the stem $\tau \varepsilon ่ \lambda \omega$ to end, $\gamma \varepsilon \nu \nu \alpha ́ \omega$ to beget, and to bear, from $\gamma \dot{\text { sival }}$ to come into being. The above examples from the German show also that $c h$ when doubled takes the form of $k k, c k$, in accordance with the laws relating to the Daghesh in Hebrew (§ 13, 3). Analogous to the conjugation Poell (§54, 1) is cado, to fell, from cado, to fall.
    + In Arabic, Denominatives of Conj. II. often express injury done to a member, the removal of vermin or of any injurious thing. This force is not wholly wanting, also, in the simplest Conj. I. Comp. Hebrew Kal

[^71]:    * The verb yָּ yivi to make, is employed in the expression of the same ideas, e. g. to make fat (fatness), for, to produce fat upon his body, Job xv. 27; to make fruits, to make branches, for, to produce, to put forth, Hos. viii. 7; Job xiv. 9. Compare in Latin corpus facere, Justin. 11, 8; robur facere, Hirtius, Bell. Afr. 85 ; sobolem, divitias, facere, Plin., and in Italian far corpo, far forze, far frutto.

[^72]:    * See also in Hebrew

[^73]:    * Compare tinnio, tintinnus, and in German Ticktack, Wirrwarr, Klingklang [our ding dong]. The repctition of the same letter in verbs =: produces also the same effect; as in PP? to lick, Fi= to beat, טָּ to trip along. Other languages express the same thing by diminutive forms; comp. in Lat. the termination -illo, as in cantillo, in Germ. -eln, ern. in Jlimmern, trillern, tröpfeln [comp. our drip, dribble]. Hence we may explain the relation, mentioned under No. 3, between these forms and the diminutives.

[^74]:    * We treat this subject here in connexion with the regular verb, in order to show in it the general analogy. As to the irregular verbs, the mode of shortening their forms before the suffixes will be noticed under each class.
    $\dagger$ On the cases where the former must be employed see $\S 119,3$.

[^75]:    * תֶ occurs very seldom as verbal suffix (Deut. xxxii. 26), קֶ not at all. Yet they are given in the list as being ground-forms, which frequently occur with nouns and prepositions.
    $\dagger$ Traces of this lost form appear still in the afformatives of the Æthiopic Preterite, as qatalka (thou hast killed), and also in the Samaritan (see Gesenii
     forms with $t$ and $k$ are not unfrequently interchanged in languages generally [see § 33,3 , Note].

[^76]:    * We retain the common name union-vowel [Bindevocal], although it rests on a rather superficial view and is somewhat vague. These union sounds seem for the most part to be residues of ancient terminations of the verb. Take, for example, the Hebrew form $q^{\ell}$ tal-ani when compared with the Arabic qatala-ni.

[^77]:    * This form is also found as feminine without a suffix, Jer. xlix. 11; Ez
    

[^78]:    * See the general view of the classes in § 41.

[^79]:    * Hophal, which is not exhibited in the Paradigm, is varied like Kal. Hiphil is regular.

[^80]:    * The verb צָּנ, employed as a Paradigm, has the Fut. $A_{1}$ which is not presented, however, as the most usual form of the Fut. in verbs of this class, but only as the actual form of this particular verb. The Tsere in $j \underline{N}$ ? is owing to the double feebleness of the stem

[^81]:    * The common explanation, which we also give, of this inserted vowel may certainly suffice, if an approximation be supposed between this class of verbs and the class with mar, p. 294) the hint whether the ${ }^{-}$- and $\mathrm{i}^{\text {in }}$ these forms do not properly be-
     of the pronoun which may be explained from the Egyptian, where eNloK (thou), eNToTeN (you), ANoK (I, comp. "בִjxָ), \&ec., show a corresponding o in the pronoun.

[^82]:    * It might seem far more easy, in explaining the origin of the Fut. well as of the Fut. in verbs " " prefixing $\underset{\uparrow}{ }$. so also Hiph. and Hoph. But the mechanically easier way is not always the natural one.
    
    
    $\ddagger$ The terminations for gender and number in the Participles take the tone,
    

[^83]:    ＊On the $a$ under the preformative see No． 4.

[^84]:    - The Jussive signification in these examples is the reason that they have Tsere like the Imp. But this will not apply to all other cases; and, besides, the reading in many instances is doubtful between ( - ) and ( - ). See Gen. xxvi. 29; Lev. xviii. 7; Jos. vii. 9; ix. 24; Dan. i. 13; Ez. v. 12.

[^85]:    ＊It is worthy of remark，that the verbs＂ Yiv，are apt from their origin to take o in the second syllable．Besides the above example，we have

[^86]:    * This has been called [by Gesenius himself and others] the declension of the Hebrew noun.

[^87]:    * Under the regular verb we here include the ver' . with gutturals, $\$ \$ 62-6{ }^{4}$

[^88]:    * No. 21 may be regarded also as a mere modification of No. 3.

[^89]:    ＊On the formation of feminines without the Daghesh，see § 92, Rem． 2.

[^90]:    * See Gesenii Thesaurus Ling. Hebrææ, p. 629.
    $\dagger$ On some traces of obsolete case-endings, sec $\$ 88$.

[^91]:    * In accordance with the universal tendency of the tone, in the Hebrew language, to hasten towards the end of words (§ 29, 1).
    $\dagger$ What is here said of the Heb. mode of expressing the relation of the genitive, is applicable in almost every particular also to the Celtic. In Welsh, for instance, they express word of God by gair Duw, i. e. word God, without any change in either noun. The close connexion in utterance is all that indicates the genitive case.-Tr.
    $\ddagger$ Compare §74, 1, Rem.

[^92]:    - See on this force of the accusative § $116,1$.

[^93]:    ＊So likewise at times the accusative，§ 116， 1.

[^94]:    - In ancient combinations of words endings are often retained which have disappeared elsewhere or are but seldom employed, e. g. the feminine ending $n-$ with the noun in the genitive connexion ( $\$ 87,2, b$ ) and with the verb in connexion with suffixes ( $\$ 58,1$ ); in like manner many peculiarities of language are retained by poets and in proper names.

[^95]:    * See a case analogous in $\oint 86,5$, Rem. 1. Comp. the double feminine end ing in § 79, Rem. 2, f.

[^96]:    * About light and grave suffixes see Note on pages 178, 179.

[^97]:    ＊Grave suffixes are those which have always a strong accent or tone．
    

[^98]:    ＊This is contrary to the general rule（ $\$ 27,3$ ），since the tone is not thrown forward．But as $\pi-\frac{1}{\square}$ merely a secondary form（ $(79,2)$ derived from the

[^99]:    * As these nouns, though primitives, follow the analogy of verbals (\$81, 2), it is necessary, in order to understand their inflexions, that we should know to which class of irregular verbs they respectively conform.

[^100]:    * That the Hebrew numerals, from 1 to 10 , are words of very high antiquity [if not strictly primitive, see $\S 81,1]$ may be inferred from their essential coincidence in all the Shemitish tongues. Moreover a principal ground for maintain-

[^101]:    * In the vulgar dialects of the Arabic and in the 㕍thiopic the feminine form of the numerals is used almost exclusively. This form appears in Hebrew also in the abstract use of the numerals (Gen, iv. 15). It may be added that the feminine form is very frequently used for expressing the idea of plurality, as in collectives; see § $105,3, d$.
    $\dagger$ The etymology of this word is obscure. R. Jona explains it by yn to twelve, as if close to twelve, an expression like undeviginti, but yet not so passable here. Besides, this explanation would properly apply only to the
    
     thing thought of in addition to ten, from עָּ

[^102]:    ＊The plural forms ロックּ ขยากี ，take in the absolute state the shortened form，which，in other words of this class，appears first in the construct state．Analogy requires $\square^{\square}$
    

[^103]:    * Even short phrases are contracted into one word, e. g. German zwar from es ist wahr (il est vrai), Lat. forsitan from fors sit an. In the Chinese, most of the particles are verbs or nouns; e. g. iil, to give, employed as a sign of the dative; $i$, to make use of, hence for ; nei, the interior, hence $i n$.

[^104]:     rived from a root meaning to approach (Heb, and Aram. .

[^105]:    4 accessit). On the derivation of 3 , from Aram. also 43 , prop. in the
    
    

[^106]:    * It has frequently been maintained, that the form in ${ }_{\tau}$ stands also for the sing. i\}, for which various explanations have been given. An analogy might certainly be found in the used only with reference to collectives; see Gen. ix. 26 (in reference to Chem = the Shemites), Ps. xxviii. 8; lxvii. 10 (in reference to the people), Is. xiv. 15
     ene to the foregoing in his generation, i. e. He and his like).
     godly man, who in the whole representation, vs. $5-20$, is a collective, -nay, it
     representation, v. 13, ציָּרִצים). More strange is to 7 귤 man (human being). Yet this too is doubtless collective.
    [It is proper to remark, that the use of in? for the sing. it is still maintaine by Ewald in his latest work, Ausfuhrliches Lehrbuch der Hebr. Spracie, Ste. Ausgabe, 1844. The same is maintained by other eminent scholars. -Tr.]
    $\dagger$ Not

[^107]:    * The use of ${ }^{4}$ for ${ }^{4}$ - here is simply for the sake of euphony.
    $\dagger$ Some of these words, which come from stems ${ }^{\prime \prime}$, may certainly be traced back to singular forms like "ל analogy of the others makes it more probable that these too should be regarded as plurals. Comp. the plural forms צָּ

[^108]:    * לְָּה stand also in this form in connexion with the feminine and with the plural, as a proof that they have fully assumed the nature of interjections.

[^109]:    * There are a few adjectives of this kind formed after the manner of passive
    

[^110]:    * On the subject of Nos. 3 and 4, see the excellent remarks of Harris (Hermes, I. p. 37).

[^111]:     viii. 1), stands for mother-city, $\mu \eta \tau \rho o ́ \pi r o \lambda \iota s$ (comp. $\mu \eta \pi \dot{r} \rho$, mater) ; and by the same figure, the inhabitants were called sons of the country, as sons of Zion, Ps. cxlix. 2; sons of Babylon, Ezek, xxiii. 15 (comp. son of the house, son of the womb).
    $\dagger$ As this word $\quad$ bic is usually masc., we find also in the others more or less fluctuation in the gender.

[^112]:    * Here belongs the poetical personification of a people as a female, Is, xlvii.; 1. 1; liv. 1 seq.; Ez. xvi.; Lam. i.
    $\dagger$ Of the masc. gender in these nouns the few examples are Is. xvii. 5 ,
    
    $\ddagger$ The particulars are found in the Lexicon. Some of these words, moreover,
     פ刃 time (for צֶֶֶ). These are only now and then construed as masculine, from a misapprehension of their origin.

[^113]:    * By transferring an expression for numerical quantity to geometrical (comp. No. 4, Rem. 1). The language has other examples of the designation of great
    
    $\dagger$ Comp. the same use of the plur. in $\tau \dot{\alpha} \sigma \tau \dot{\varepsilon} \rho \nu \alpha, \tau \dot{\alpha} \nu \tilde{\omega} \tau \alpha$, pracordia, cervices, fauces.
    $\ddagger$ Somewhat like is the use of we by kings when speaking of themselves (Ezra iv. 18 ; vii. 24 ; comp. 1 Mac. x. 19 ; xi. 31), a mode of speaking which is then applied to God (Gen. i. 26, xi.7; Is. vi.8). The Jewish grammarians call such a plural חרבּ רּ excellentic or plur. majestaticus. The use of the plural as a form of respectful address, as modern languages have it, is somewhat different from the Hebrew usage.

[^114]:    - All the three methods occur also in Syriac and AEthiopic. See Hoffmanni Gram. Syriaca, p. 254; Ludolfi Gram. Exthiopica, p. 139.

[^115]:    * In these particulars (relating to the omission of the definite article, namely, before proper names, before nouns in construction with a genitive or with a possessive pronoun, and before predicates), the usage of our language corresponds to that of the Hebrew. The same is true of the Celtic tongues. In Greek it is quite otherwise, the article being freely used in all these cases except the last.-Tr.

[^116]:    * What is here said of 3.5 applies also to its Greek equivalent, $\pi \tilde{x}_{g}$ : e. g.
     xii. 25).-TR.

[^117]:    * In Greek and Latin the genitive is employed in the same manner, as tristes animi; see Ruhnken. ad Vell. Paterculum. 2, 93.
    
     siii. 39, like Cicer Consul, is of rare occurrence.
    $\ddagger$ The student should here notice (what no Heb. grammar has hitherto pointed out), that two or more nouns cannot be in the construct state before the

[^118]:    * Philologically considt ${ }_{\text {? }}^{\text {d, }}$, the Gascon says no less correctly la fille à Mr. $N$., than the written langus e la fille de-; the former expresses the idea of belonging, the latter that of escent. The Arabians distinguish a twofold genitive; viz. one which has the frce of 3 , and one which has that of $\eta$. We have the latter conception of this :lation in the de of modern languages, that are derived from the Latin (the Rom nce languages). In Greek we may compare the
     (see Bernhardy's Syntax, p. 88).

[^119]:    * So in English York-street, Covent-garden, for near Covent-garden. But in Latin the genitive is used in such cases (like the Hebrew construction mentioned in § 112, Rem. 2), as Augusta Vindelicorum.

[^120]:    * תix, which, in close connexion with a following word and without the
     derived from a pronominal stem. It signifies essence, substance (comp. תix a sign), but in construction with a following noun or suffix it stands for the pronoun ipse aítós (comp. a similar usage in § 122, Rem. 3). But in common use it has so little stress, that it only points out a definite object. Its force is here
    
    
     ovéovor.—That rxan denote also the nominative is not of itself inconceivable, but appears to be actually the case in some instances, like Hag. ii. 17, 2 Kings xviii. $\mathrm{J0}$ (yet it is wanting in the parallel passage Is. xxxvi. 15), perhaps also

[^121]:    * The possessive pronoun may be expressed by circumlocution, after the manner of the Aramæan; Ruth ii. 21, ${ }^{4}$ ִ Lor my servants; especially after a substantive which is followed by another in

[^122]:    זֶּ is used adverbially, a) for there, חֶה see there! and then merely
     then? (prop. wherefore there?), b) in reference to time, for now, as now (already) twice, Gen. xxvii. 36.
    3. The interrogative מִ can be used in reference to a plural,
     accurately used, Ex. x. 8); also in reference to things, yet only when the idea of persons is implied, e. g. מִי who are the Shechemites? Judges ix. 28; comp. Gen. xxxiii. 8.- may also stand in the genitive, as whose daughter? Gen. xxiv. 23. It is also used indefinitely for any one whoever, and מָּ

[^123]:    * So also in the German of Luther's time, as er machte ihm einen Rork (where $i h m$ stands for sich), which may be literally rendered into old-fashioned English thus, he made him (i. e. for himself) a coat -Tr.

[^124]:    * Much nearer the mark would be the distinction of them into Actio perfecta and Actio infecta, according to the designation introduced into Latin grammar after Varro.
    + Similar in Latin are novi, memini, odi.

[^125]:    * The assurance that something will happen, can also serve to express the wisk that something may happen. So Gen. xl. 14, , and do thou a kindness, I pray, to me (prop. thou surely doest kindness to me, 1 hope), and make mention of me to Pharaoh. The addition of $\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{J}}$ makes the sense of the Pret. here unquestionable. In Arabic, likewise, the Pret. is employed in wishes

[^126]:    and obtestations. In Heb. farther Job xxi. 16, the counsel of the wicked be far from me! xxii. 18. Comp. the use of the Preterite when following the Imperative, in No. 6, c.

[^127]:    - When these particles have a different signification, the Future is not used;
    

[^128]:    * The particle J (§ 103) gives to the verb the force of a request and of a wish. On its use with the first person see $\oint 126,1$.
    $\dagger$ When $\underset{\sim}{*}$ signifies then in respect to future time, this form of the verb has a future sense (Ex. xii. 48).

[^129]:    * This construction may perhaps be accounted for by supposing, that what was thus put in the Future was conceived of as relatively future, i. e. as later than and subsequent to what had been expressed by the preceding Preterite. This conjecture will obviously hold good in the first example given above. Compare Rodiger's own view of the Preterite in § 123.-Tr.
    | Thie preceding Pret. is, at times, only implied in the sense, e. g. Gen. xi. 10, Chem (was) 100 years old $\boldsymbol{T}_{\text {binn }}$ and he begat, x. 1. So also in this sentence: on

[^130]:    * Analogous is the form of menace in the comic writers, vapula, Terent. Phorm. V. 6, 10, vapulare te jubeo Plaut. Curculio, IV. 4, 12.

[^131]:    * Here the Inf. constr. is always used. But when several successive infinitives are to lave a preposition, it is often written only before the first, and the second, before which it is to be supplied by the mind, stands in the absolute form, as in in tive to eat and (o) drink, F, -xxii. 6; comp. 1 Sam. xxii. 13 ; xxv. 26 ; Jer. vii. 18 ; xliv. 17. This case is $\mathbf{\alpha}$ Nָ to eulrith that explained $\S 119,3$. Comp. also No. 4, $a$, of this section.
    + On the Accusat. ruently fo
    asus adverbialis, see § 116. In Arabic it takes, in

[^132]:    this case, the sign of the Accusative. In general, the Inf. absol. answers in most cases (see Nos. 1, 2, 3, of this section) to the Accusative of the Infinitive, to which No. 4 also is to be referred.

    * As much as to say, I un ace in the comic writers, vapucu gerey namely from earnest longing. The Vulgate Curculio, IV. 4, 12.

[^133]:    - This sense is necessary from the context, and in the parallel passage Jos. xvii. 12 it is expressed by
    
     object ( $\delta 112,2$ ), which construction is common in Arabic; but since in other instances $\mathbb{K}$ is used, and since a form like never occurs in such connexion, which form would decidedly mark the consir. state and also the genitive relation, we must suppose that the Hebrews considered, at least as a general rule, the object of the Inf. to be in the accusative. Comp. No. 2 and 3.

[^134]:    * In Syriac and Chaldee it is more frequently used for the Present than in its proper signification as a participle.

[^135]:    * For the use of the article here before the predicate, see $\S 108, \mathbf{3}, \mathrm{Rem}$.
    t In Syriac the Present is expressed by interficiens ego (comp. letter a), and the Imperfect by interficiens fui=interficiebam.

[^136]:    * Sometimes on the contrary the impersonal dicunt must be understood as strictly the passive dicitur. Job vii. 3, nights of pain have they appointed me, for are appointed me (sc. by God); iv. 19 ; xvii. 12 ; xxxii. 15 ; xxxiv. 20. So in Chaldeo very frequently (Dan. ii. 30 ; iii. 4; v. 3) and in Syriac.

[^137]:    - The Hebrews used also, on the other hand, the $\mathfrak{i n} n^{\circ} \ldots n t i$ where we have the accusative. They used indifferently, as , गwe .. nay, the constructions to shake the head (Ps. xxii. 8), and to shnt :zhe the head (Job xvi. 4); to gnash the teeth (Ps. xxxv. 16) and to gnzar with the teeth (Job xvi. 9), where head and teeth may be regarded as the object of the verb and as the instrument. But there is a deviation from our mode of expression in these phrases, viz. to open the mouth (Job xvi. 10, prop. to make an opening with the mouth), פּ - בֶּ to spread out the hands (Lam. i. 17, prop. to make a spreading with the
    

[^138]:    * On the passives of these verbs see $\S 140,1$.

[^139]:    * To permit one to do a thing is expressed by זֶּחן
     not permitted thee to touch.
    $\dagger$ So after words which include an analogous verbal idea, e. g. אیין it is it in not permitted to enter in ; צֵּ (poet.) there is not to be compared, Ps. xl. 6 ; שת ready, prepared, commonly with ? ? without it in Job iii. 8.

[^140]:    * The Arabian says volebat dilaceraret, for he would rend; and so the Syrian sen the conjunction that, $\hat{\mid \hat{L}} \hat{W}^{x} \hat{L}_{j}^{0}$ he would come. The Latin also may omit the conjunction in this case: Quid vis faciam? Ter. Volo hoc oratori contingat, Cic. Brut. 84. So in German [and in English] Ich wollte, eq ware; Ich dachte, ed ginge [I would it were, I thought it went].

[^141]:    * For
    $\dagger$ This construction also is common in Syriac (see Hoffmann's Gram. Syr. p. $343, b$ ), where it is by no means to be taken (as is done by J. D. Michaelis) for a Græcism.

[^142]:    - Comp. Olshausen Emendationen zum A. T., S. 24, 25.

[^143]:    * But see Hengstenberg's Psalmen, II. p. 415. Philology requires no other than the simple and natural construction, "Thy throne, O God!" \&c., which is given in all the ancient versions as well as in our own.-Tr.

[^144]:    * Rarely the object is inserted between the negative and the verb (Job xxii. 7, exxiv. 23. Eccles. x. 10), also the subject (2 Kings v. 26), or an adverbial expression (Pe. vi. 2).

[^145]:    * Such a case absolute may also have $\frac{子}{\text { ? (in respect to) before it, e. g. Ps. xvi.3, }}$ Is. xxxii. 1 .

[^146]:    * Sallust. Jugurth. 14, pars in crucem acti, pars bestiis objecti.
    + צn is construed with the plur. only in the older biblical books, and in certain forms of expression which perhaps had their origin in polytheism. Gen. xx. 13; xxxv. 7 ; Ex. xxii. 8; Ps. lviii 12. The later writers studiously avoid this construction as polytheistic ; comp. Ex. xxxii. 4, 8, and Neh. ix. $18 ; 2$ Sam. vii. 23, and 1 Chron. xvii. 21. See the Lexicon.
    $\ddagger$ Perfectly analogous is the Greek construction $\tau \dot{\alpha} \pi \varrho o ́ \beta \alpha \tau \alpha \beta \beta \dot{\beta} \dot{\nu} \varepsilon \ell$, where the Attics admit the plural only when persons are designated: $\tau \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \delta \rho \varrho \dot{\alpha} \pi r o \delta \alpha$ Ělaßov. In Arabic, such a plural is called pluralis inhumanus (i. e. not used of men) and is construed chiefly with the fem. sing., like all its so-called pluralia fracta (collective forms).

[^147]:    * Independently of this arrangement, the standing for the copula is re-
     the offerings of Jehovah . . . . . that is his inheritance. Comp. Jer. x. 3.

[^148]:    - Probably for sicut hoc.
     monte quasi pendentes. Comp. Soph. Antig. 411, $x \alpha \vartheta \eta \eta_{\mu \varepsilon \vartheta^{3}}{ }_{\alpha} x \rho \omega \nu$ ย́x $\pi \alpha ́ \gamma \omega \nu$;
    

[^149]:    * Compounded of ix and ${ }^{3}$ 3 $=$ 人 3 , comp. Aram.
     whether not, (who knows) whether not, consequently perhaps, expressing doubt, solicitude, and also hope.

[^150]:    －This view of $\underset{\text { 上 }}{ }$ is omitted in Gesenius＇s last edition，and in Rödiger＇s．，Tr．

[^151]:    ＊In the same manner are used ouvx（nonne ？）and $\mu \eta$ ；the former（Hom．Il． x ．165，iv．242）in expectation of an affirmative，the latter（Odyss．vi．200）of a negative answer．
    $\dagger$ So in Greek and Latin，originally affirmative and then interrogative are $\bar{\eta}$ ，

[^152]:    * Among these we reckon such forms as considered are indeed compound words, but as prepositions they express only one idea, and are thus distinguished from the compounds under No. 2, e. g. "מִלְ from before.

[^153]:    - When the Hebrew says, he took the offering מֵyy from upon the altar (away from the lop of the altar), he presents the idea fully; while it is but half expressed in the Fr. il prend le chapeau sur la table, the Germ. er nimmt den Hut vom Tische weg and the Eng. he takes his hat from the table, the Fr. omitting one relation, the Germ. and Eng. another.
    $\dagger$ In the Syr. adverb (see Hoffmanni Gram. Syr. p. 280 ult.). The Hebrew in like manner
     usque ex, comp. also inde.
    $\ddagger$ For fuller information, Gesenius's Lexicon must be consulted.-Tr.

[^154]:    - Comp. § 105, 1, Rem. § 144, Rem. 1.
    $\dagger$ See fuller particulars on the use of Vav copulative in Gesenius's Thesaurus L. p. 393 et seqq.

[^155]:    * More rare is pleonasm, or an unnecessary fulness of expression; e.g. for if, Ex. xxii. 22, comp. old Germ. wenn dass (prop. if it is that) and old Eng. "if so be that." On the contrary, a degree of pleonasm in the particles is quite
    
     nastic, is the repetition of the conjunction in Lev. $x$ xvi. 43.

[^156]:    * The forms with an asterisk are exclusively po-

[^157]:    $\square$
    9
    

[^158]:    * Until the student has learned to distinguish cases of quiescence he will be guided by the pronunciation appended to the Heb. form, which contains the English representative of the feeble letter whenever it retains its power as a consonant. $\dagger$ The consonant sound of $y$.

[^159]:    * One sign, which the learner would not yet understand, is omitted under $\underset{\sim}{\infty}$ and $\boldsymbol{i}$. $\dagger$ In these exercises the sound of $N$ is indicated by the spiritus lenis ('), and that of $y$ by the double spiritus asper ( ") , as in the alphabet

[^160]:    - The feeble letters when pronounced as vowels of course do not take Sheva.

[^161]:    * The examples which follow are adapted to the treatment of the subject in the Grammar, as well as to the above representation of it, and should be carefully studied with reference to both. - Teachers will observe, that the rule here given is intended merely to guide the learner, at first, in the division of syllables.
    † Comp. § 26, 5 \& 7, Rem.

[^162]:    * It will bs perceived from the examples, that Nos. 2 and 3 are essentially the same, -Sheva being always vocal in the midst of a word when preceded by another Sheva.
    + Comp. § 26, 7, Rem.

[^163]:    * The distunction here made is not affected by single instances of the irregular or erroneous application of Methegh; as
    

[^164]:    * i. e. of a division of the verse in reading; but these divisions are often made by the accents without regard to the sense.

[^165]:    * The sound of $\boldsymbol{q}$ is more nearly represented by $w$ (better still by the German w) than by $v$; but the latter is employed for representing the consonant power of $\mathfrak{j}$, on account of the difficulty of making our $w$ heard as a consonant after a vowel. The readiness with which, dissolves, as it were, or melts into a vowel, will appear if we give it the sound of 20 as heard in water, in the examplesㄴ), ל The sound of, flows into a vowel with equal facility, as may be seen by pronouncing it as the consonant $y$ in $\cdot 7, \uparrow$. - In the loss of the original consonant power of these letters at the end of a syllable, the English and Hebrew exhibit tne same analogy, except that in the former it is universal.
    $\dagger$ Compare $h$ in eh! hah! where final $h$ is sounded, and in $a h$, ok, where it is lost to the ear.

[^166]:    * The ult. and penult. vowels having fallen away, a helping vowel is supplied m place of the first. This is Gesenius explanation, and obviously a more simple and natural one than that given by Rödiger, loc. cit. . For a still better one, sem page 30, Note $\dagger$.

[^167]:    * If the first syllable is pronounced rapidly, it will be perceived that the slight sound of $H e$ is easily lost to the ear.
    $\dagger$ Except Paradigms $\boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{L}, \boldsymbol{M}$, and $\boldsymbol{O}$, which must be explained chiefly from the section placed at the head of each.

[^168]:    ＊Pronounced together，as a single word，expressing the compound idea bullock＇s

[^169]:    blood. Compare the manner of connecting suffixes with such compound expressions, as if they formed but one word $(\$ 119,3)$; as
    

    * Except that in the Plural, light suffixes are attached to the absol. st. according to the geseral rule, $\oint 90, b$.

[^170]:    *The light suffix everywhere takes the place of the Plur. as well as Dual termination.
    † It would be more simple to derive this form, and the next but one, immediately from the Plur. absol., applying the rule given Sect. V. II, 2. No. 3 of that Sect. added merely to preserve the representation given in the Grammar.

[^171]:    $\|$ The Dual termination is appended to the monosyllabic root, except in derivatives from verbs "ל (see VI. i).
    ** Parad. $f$ follows in its inflexion the analogy of the kindred forms שixp \&c though, on account of the composite Sheva under the guttural, the first syllable remains an open one.
    

[^172]:    * The exercises on the suffix pronouns may be written with the table of suffixes before the eye of the student, or from memory, as the teacher shall direct. - The lexicon should be consulted on each of the elements given in the analysis.

[^173]:    *The words in each sentence are thus indicated, by numbering them from the right.

[^174]:    * And $\S$ 147, 5.

[^175]:    * The accent or tone of words in these Phrases is always at the end, except When marked on the penultima by the sign ( - ) or by one of the regular accents (8 15).

[^176]:    v. 1. הס" בחטן קמץ

[^177]:    * Sometimes the proportion or correspondence appears only in expression, while the thought runs on in the common way of prose, as in Job ix. 2, 3, 4.
    $\dagger$ It is very often of essential service to the interpreter of Scripture to notice this parallelism. There are numerous expressions and passages to the meaning of which a clue may thus be obtained. For example, in Ps. 1xxvi. 3 (his tabernacle is - דְּנְ means in peace or in Salem; but the doubt can scarcely remain when one considers the corresponding clause, where in Zion stands parallel to the term in question and determines it to mean in Salem.

[^178]:    * This passage strikingly exhibits rhyme as well as parallelism. The same is found in many other poetic sentences; e. g. in Job vi. we find it six times, viz. in vs. $4,7,9,13,22,29$. But there is no satisfactory proof, that in these or other cases the rhyme was (as De Wette, \&cc. suppose) designed by the poet. On the contrary, it is almost certain, that the poet had no such design. For if he had, he might with perfect ease have given in Job vi. ten more rhymes, e. g. in v. $\delta$ there might be as good a rhyme as we find in $\mathbf{v}$. 9 , by a very simple change in the arrangement of the words; thus, instead of the present order :
    he might without affecting the sense, have written:

    As another proof that rhymes in Hebrew Poetry are undesigned, we may point te fact, that they consist in the recurrence of like suffixes or terminations in

[^179]:    * For the sounds of the consonants and vowels as here employed to express the Hebrew pronunciation, see $\$ 6$ with Note $\dagger$ on page 35 and Note * on page 39, also § 10.-On Hebrew syllables see $\$ 26$.

[^180]:    * See § 5, Rem. 4.

[^181]:    

[^182]:    * The uncertainty, conditionality, which belongs to the subjunctive, and the reference to the future which is apparent in the optative, have in all languages a clear analogy with the future ; comp. e. g. dicam, dices and dicam, dicas.

